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ABSTRACT

This monograph presents 14 brief papers on special education in other countries or comparisons between countries. Papers have the following titles and authors: "Legal Foundations of Special Education: A Comparison of the United States Public Law 94-142 and the China Compulsory Education Law" (Hong Bo Wang et al.); "International Networks in Staff Development" (Tony Best); "Poverty and Handicap in the Republic of Yemen" (Azza Qirbi); "Hong Kong in 1997: Through Train or All Change?" (Nick Crawford); "Special Education Down Under" (David R. Mitchell); "Development of Special Education in the Republic of Korea" (Seung-Kook Kim); "Attitudes of High School and College Students toward Persons with Disabilities in the Republic of Korea" (Yong G. Hwang and Carmen Iannaccone); "Interviews with Mothers of Severely Handicapped Children: School Leavers in Japan" (Louise Fulton and Virginia Dixon); "Video Training Packages for Parent Education" (Roy McConkey); "Development of Special Education in Ghana" (Selete Kofi Avoke and Mawutor Kudzo Avoke); "Special Education in Japan" (Shigeru Narita); "Special Needs Education in Zambia" (Darlington Kalabula); "Inclusion and Integration in Europe: A Human Rights Issue" (Christine O'Hanlon); and "Towards the Comparative Study of Special Education" (Lesley Barcham and Graham Upton). Papers contain references. (DB)

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THE VIEW FINDER:

EXPANDING
Boundaries & Perspectives In Special Education

ED 366 155

Editors:
ROBERT J. MICHAEL
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THE VIEW FINDER:

EXPANDING

Boundaries and Perspectives in Special Education

VOLUME TWO

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THE VIEW FINDER:

Expanding Boundaries and Perspectives in Special Education

VOLUME TWO

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PREFACE

This edition of The View Finder presents the reader with a unique view of special education throughout the world. Countries such as Zambia, Yemen, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, China, Ghana and New Zealand are visited through the words of authors who have developed a sound knowledge of the education of students with disabilities. The editors of The View Finder and the executive board of the Division of International Special Education and Services (DISES) of the Council For Exceptional Children truly appreciate the efforts of the authors who wrote articles for this edition of The View Finder.

The reader can begin by comparing and contrasting Public Law 94-142 from the United States with the Compulsory Education Law of China through an article authored by Hong Bo Wang, Sarah Rule, Glenn Latham, and Barbara Fiechtl. In the following article, Tony Best discusses the use of international networks and the subsequent benefits for staff development, especially for those individuals in the field of sensory impairments. Azza Qirbi presents the issues concerning poverty, health problems, and handicapping conditions in the Republic of Yemen, while Nick Crawford reviews the key developments in special education in Hong Kong. From down under, David Mitchell analyzes the major changes in special education in New Zealand.

Two articles are concerned with the Republic of Korea. Seung-Kook Kim presents the development of special education in his country, and Yong Hwang and Carmen Iannaccone examine the attitudes of high school and college students in the Republic of Korea toward persons with disabilities. Louise Fulton and Virginia Dixon interview mothers of children with severe handicaps in the country of Japan.In the following article, Roy McConkey discusses the development, field testing, and evaluation of video training packages about disabilities which were developed for parent education in developing countries. Selete Kofi Avoke and Mawutor Kudzo Abbke trace the develpment of special education in Ghana, and Shigeru Narita explores the special education system in Japan. Darlington Kalabula examines special needs education in Zambia, with respect to legislation, organization, current provisions, problems, and future directions, and Christine O'Hanlon discusses the integration and inclusion of pupils with special education needs in European countries. And, finally, Lesley Barcham and Graham Upton conclude the monograph by stimulating discussion on the need for a comparative approach within the field of special education.

We would like to thank the many individuals who have assisted us in producing this monograph. In particular, appreciation is given to Lynn Van Eseltine Sarda, Kristen Juul, Keith Bovair, Heather Mason, Colin Smith, and Richard Gargiulo for their feedback on the manuscripts. The editors would like to dedicate this edition to Dr. Robert Henderson who has supported this publication with priceless generosity of spirit. We hope that this edition of the monograph adds to your knowledge of international special education and that you enjoy reading the varied articles concerned with an international perspective.

Robert J.Michael & Graham Upton

LEGAL FOUNDATIONS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION: A COMPARISON OF THE UNITED STATES PUBLIC LAW 94-142 AND THE CHINA COMPULSORY EDUCATION LAW

by Hong Bo Wang, Sarah Rule, Glenn Latham, and Barbara Fiechtl

Hong Bo Wang is a member of a special education service team in the Lawrence, Kansas, public schools. She completed a Master's degree in special education at Utah State University while on leave from Beijing Normal University. In the following paper, all passages from the Compulsory Education Act and other Chinese language references were translated by Hong Bo Wang.

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INTRODUCTION

There is a trend across societies to provide education to children with disabilities. The question is no longer whether we should educate these children, but how. In some countries, legislation has addressed the quality as well as the quantity of special education.

In the United States, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142) dramatically impacted education (Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1990). After its passage, there was a marked increase in the number of children with disabilities who were educated. During the 1988-89 school year, 4.6 million students with disabilities, aged 0-21, received special education and related services, representing a 23.7% increase over the number reported in 1976-77 (U.S. Department of Education, 1990).

The China Compulsory Education Law, passed in April 1986, was a critical point in the rapid national development of special education in the People's Republic of China. Following its passage, both teacher training and special education programs increased and, in some parts of the country, were initiated for the first time in history. Almost every province and large city now has at least one special education teacher training program or school. Between 1988 and 1991, 316 new special schools were established. Since 1988, the annual increase in the number of students with disabilities served in special schools has averaged 30%. The number of self-contained classrooms doubled (Wu & Li, 1991). These changes can be attributed to the China Compulsory Education Law.

This article compares China's Compulsory Education Law with P.L. 94-142. From the comparison, one can make inferences about the effects of mandatory versus enabling legislation that addresses the education of children with disabilities. It is hoped that the comparison will help policy-makers, special education professionals, and related service personnel to advocate for effective legislation.

COMPARISON OF LAWS - SIMILARITIES

Though developed for different purposes in different countries, these laws share several characteristics: both represented landmark legislation; both addressed personnel development; and both embody the concept of mainstreaming.

Landmark Legislation. Public Law 94-142 was the first compulsory special education law in the United States. It established a basis for the practice of special education by guaranteeing a free, appropriate education for all students with disabilities (as defined in the law and subsequent amendments). Concepts such as "least restrictive environment," "mainstreaming," and "individualized education programs" became reality in the field of public education after the passage of the law (Weisenstein & Pelz, 1986).

As the first compulsory education law in the People's Republic of China, the Compulsory Education Law promised efforts to provide a free education for children with disabilities. "Compulsory Education for Handicapped Children" of the "Suggestions on Implementation of the Compulsory Education Law" (hereafter called Compulsory Education Law regulations), drafted by the State Education Commission, the State Planning Commission, The Ministry of Labor and Personnel, and the Ministry of Finance (1986, September), stated:

"When implementing the Compulsory Education Law, local government at all levels should attach great importance to compulsory education for blind, deaf and mute, mentally retarded, and other handicapped children, systematically arranging for them to go to school" (Article 10, Section 31).

Personnel Development. Both laws required that, as educational agencies implement the laws, they provide personnel preparation programs. P.L. 94-142 requires states and local school districts to develop and implement a system to prepare personnel who are qualified to serve students with disabilities (Ballard, Ramirez & Zantal-Wiener, 1987). Training should be provided not only to teachers, but also to related service personnel, such as occupational therapists and speech/language pathologists.

The Compulsory Education Law regulations (China State Commission et al, 1986) require that local education agencies "strengthen special education teacher training programs. Those provinces, autonomous regions and metropolitan cities which are in more advanced conditions should build special education teacher normal schools or special education teacher training classes in the regular education teacher normal schools to train the teachers needed" (Article 10, Section 33).

Concept of Mainstreaming. The concept of mainstreaming, derived from the provision of P.L. 94-142 stating that education is to be delivered in the "least restrictive environment," has become a trend in special education in the United States (Lewis & Doorlag, 1983, p. 9). Even though P.L. 94-142 does not mandate that children with disabilities be served in regular classrooms, it does require that, to the maximum extent appropriate, they be educated with their peers. Regular classroom placement or full inclusion has become a goal for special educators and related service personnel (Lewis & Doorlag, 1983)

The Compulsory Education Law regulations (China State Education Commission et al, 1986) state that regular schools "should accept children who have disabilities and ... not exclude them from study" in the regular settings. Thus, although it does not mention the word "mainstreaming," the law promotes regular schools as an ideal environment for children with disabilities.

COMPARISON OF LAWS - DIFFERENCES

Although the two laws share some characteristics, many differences exist, reflecting differences in the societies. For example, economic

development is more advanced in the United States, and its history of special education development is longer. Moreover, the two laws address different populations: one is for children with disabilities; the other is for all children, especially those who are typically developing. The laws differ in provisions such as funding of programs, years of compulsory education, categories of disabled children to be served, and service settings. We shall discuss 10 characteristics that distinguish the two laws.

Type of Law. P.L. 94-142 is both a civil rights and a program law. The federal government pays state governmental agencies and local school districts to implement programs required by the law. By contrast, the Compulsory Education Law is a civil rights law. While it ensures all children with disabilities the right to receive free education, it does not make funds available to every government agency or school for the delivery of special services.

Length of Services. Public Law 94-142 (as amended in 1986) guarantees a free, appropriate education to all children with disabilities, aged 3-21. If a child enters preschool at the age of 3 and completes high school, s/he will receive special services for about 14 years. In China, the Compulsory Education Law guarantees a free education to students, disabled and non-disabled, for only 9 years (hence the alias as the Nine-Year Compulsory Education Law).

Recipients of Service. Eleven categories of disabilities are defined by P.L. 94-142: mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, deaf-blind, multi-handicapped, or having specific learning disabilities (Weisenstein & Pelz, 1986, p. 9).

The Compulsory Education Law (1986) does not define all categories of disability in children who should benefit from the law. The regulations (Article 10, Section 32) only define "blind, deaf and mute, mentally retarded, and other handicapped children." China's Disability Criteria, confirmed by the State Office on October 7, 1986, defines five categories of disabilities: (1) blind and visually impaired, (2) deaf, hearing and speech impaired, (3) mentally retarded, (4) physically impaired, and (5) mentally ill. Because children with mental illness are treated in hospitals without educational input, and multi-handicapped children are served in schools, we can assume that "other handicapped children" refers to (1) visually impaired, (2) hearing impaired, (3) speech impaired, (4) physically impaired, and (5) multi-handicapped children. These yield eight categories of disabilities.

Service Providers. Besides teachers, P.L. 94-142 requires that related service personnel deliver services necessary for children to benefit from education. Related services are defined in the Act as: transportation, and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services (including speech pathology and audiology, [and] psychological services ...) as may be required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education (20 U.S.C. 140[a][17]).

The Compulsory Education Law, in contrast, addresses only teachers in describing a free education for children with disabilities. Related services that enable children with disabilities to benefit from compulsory education are not required by the law.

Guaranteed Services. Public Law 94-142 guarantees a free and appropriate education and those related services necessary for children with disabilities to benefit from education. Services for each child must be guided by an Individualized Education Program (IEP).

The Compulsory Education Law guarantees that there will be an effort in China to establish programs from which children with disabilities can receive free education. The law (Article 9, Section 2, China State Education Commission et al, 1989, p. 47-48) directs: "Local government at all levels build special schools (classes) for blind, deaf and mute, and mentally retarded children."

How to Provide the Service. It is mandated in P.L. 94-142 that each child who receives special education have an IEP to ensure that the specially-designed program for him/her is appropriate. However, an IEP is neither a contract (Lewis & Doorlag, 1983) nor an instructional plan, but a "management tool" (Ballard, Ramirez & Zantal-Wiener, 1987, p. 5). The development of the IEP must be based on assessments and/or evaluations of the student by a multi-disciplinary team. The law states that students should be assessed and evaluated in a non-discriminatory manner.

An IEP is not required by the Compulsory Education Law. However, the regulations (Article 10, Section 32, China State Education Commission et al, 1986) require that local education agencies develop instructional requirements "according to the characteristics of blind, deaf and mute, and mentally retarded students." This might be regarded as the first step towards developing the concept of an individualized education program.

Service Settings. Public Law 94-142 mandates that special education, designed to meet the learning needs of children with disabilities, be conducted in the least restrictive environment (Weisenstein & Pelz, 1986). China's Compulsory Education Law encourages the establishment of more special schools or special classes, which are defined in the United States as the most restrictive environments (Lewis & Doorlag, 1983; Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1990).

Parent Involvement. Due process procedures mandated by Public Law 94-142 assure that parents of children with disabilities are made aware of the mandated services to be provided for their child. They also provide steps for parents and service providers to reach agreement about the child's educational program and procedures. Also, the law requires schools to involve parents of children with disabilities in the development of the child's IEP. These provisions of the law establish a legal foundation to treat parents as equal partners with professionals in the education of their children.

Even though Chinese culture has always regarded parents as having the responsibility for educating their children, the Compulsory Education Law does not address the role of the parents in educating their children.

Specificity. Public Law 94-142 is more complete and specific than the Compulsory Education Law. It determines not only who to serve, where to serve, and what service to provide, but also **how** to serve. It also includes a payment formula.

Compared to P.L. 94-142, the Compulsory Education Law in China is very general. It neither requires that all children with disabilities go to school nor mandates that local education agencies provide services for these children. In fact, it functions more as a policy to guide the development of special education in China; that is, it established more special education school programs so that more children with disabilities can go to school and receive a free education.

Length and Quantity of Service. The age provisions in P.L. 94-142 address the number of years that education must be provided to children with disabilities. The quantity of special education services must be described in the written IEP document. This document describes educational goals and objectives for each child, and the type and amount of service to be delivered to help the child achieve the goals and objectives.

The Compulsory Education Law addresses the length of service rather than the quantity, since it does not specifically address what services to provide or how to provide them. Table 1 compares several major characteristics of P.L. 94-142 and the China Compulsory Education Law.

IMPLICATIONS

According to a report on major data of the (first) National Sampling Survey of the Handicapped (Di, 1989), there are 51,640,000 disabled persons in China. Six-and-one-half million are school-aged children ages 6-14. About 54.3% of these children were studying in regular schools, 0.95% in special schools, and 44.75% were staying at home. So far, there is no evidence regarding the quality of the education that students with disabilities receive in regular schools. Thus, China faces the dual challenges of providing more special education services to reach children who are staying at home and addressing the quality of services for students who are served in special or regular schools.

Footnotes

[1]All passages from the Compulsory Education Act and other Chinese language references were translated by Hong Bo Wang.

Table 1

Comparison of P.L. 94-142 in the United States and Compulsory Education Law in the People's Republic of China (P.R.C.)

Features	P.L. 94-142	Compulsory Ed[a] Law
Year passed	1975	1986
Target population	Handicapped children 5-21	Elementary-junior high students
Type of law	Program law	Civil rights law
Landmark legislation	First compulsory special education law in the U.S.	First compulsory education law in P.R.C
Main idea	Guarantees all handicapped children a free and appropriate education in "LRE"[b]	Encourages efforts to develop programs for the delivery of free education
Significance	Establishes the basis of practice of special education in the U.S.	Started the rapid, nationwide development of special education in China
Recipients	Mentally retarded, hard of hearing, orthopedically impaired, speech impaired, deaf, other health impaired, emotionally disturbed, visually	Mentally retarded, speech and hearing impaired, physically impaired, visually impaired, blind, deaf, mental illness, multihandicapped

Features	P.L. 94-142	Compulsory Ed[a] Law
	handicapped, deaf-blind, multihandicapped, special learning disabilities[c]	
Providers & support	Teachers, related service personnel; personnel preparation required	Teachers only: personnel training required
Services	Free, appropriate public education	Free education
Requirements of services	Length and quantity	Length
How to serve	Multidisciplinary team, IEP,[d] parent involvement	Not discussed
Settings	LRE	Special class/school

[a]Ed. = education

[b]LRE = Least Restrictive Environment

[c]Categories as described in Weisenstein & Pelz, 1986

[d]IEP = Individual Education Program

In comparison to the United States' P.L. 94-142, acts such as the China Compulsory Education Law may stimulate the initiation of special education services, but give little specific guidance to education agencies in the serving of children with disabilities. While more specific laws might include the components discussed below, additional specific provisions may be desirable only in certain societal contexts.

Education for all children with disabilities. As human beings, all children have the right to be educated regardless of disability. A goal for many societies is to provide education to all. A legal mandate may be the first step in assuring universal education, but a law cannot create the resources necessary to provide educational services.

Timeline for universal services. Because societies differ in the amount of resources that can be directed to education of all children, including those who are disabled, each must determine how quickly to move toward mandated universal education. In China, in view of its size and diverse economic development, several deadlines would need to be set. For example, those provinces whose average annual income is higher than $300/person might fully implement the law earlier than those whose average annual income is lower than $100/person.

Number of years of compulsory education. The resources available to a society will affect the length of the educational services that can be provided. China, for example, is a developing country. Providing nine years of free education to 8.3 million children with disabilities aged 7-18 by the end of this century is almost impossible (44.75% of disabled children aged 6-14 stay at home). Nine years of compulsory education can be treated as a final goal. In order to reach this goal, the first step might be to implement 5 or 6 years of compulsory elementary education. Progress toward the achievement of this goal might be measured in terms of the literacy rate of people with disabilities. The results of the first step might help to determine not only how many more years of education should follow, but also the types of subsequent service that will be most beneficial.

Assurance of quality education. Involving all children with disabilities in programs will not help them unless the programs provide high quality services. Therefore, a law mandating services must address teacher development, program evaluation, and educational placement.

Teachers are the key to quality education. However, some teachers who are working with disabled children in China are only junior high school graduates. Therefore, a special education law in China might mandate that all teachers who work with children with disabilities receive at least three years of teacher training. Additionally, the law should mandate that all local education agencies provide regular teacher in-service training, since special education might develop very rapidly.

For a long time, China has used academic examinations as a major

way to evaluate teachers' work. Since the goal of educating children with disabilities is to help them gain not only academically, but socially and emotionally as well, it is necessary for the law to help agencies develop evaluation systems for special education programs. Examinations might be the most economical way to evaluate programs; however, given the necessary resources, other alternative comprehensive methods might be developed.

Public Law 94-142 uses the concept of "least restrictive environment" to place children with disabilities where they can best benefit from education. Other societies may choose to emulate this concept and develop a continuum of placements for children from least restrictive to the most restrictive. Special schools and special classes should not be regarded as the most desirable placements for children with disabilities.

Assurance of finances. To assure equity of education in all parts of the country, it may be necessary for a law mandating service for children with disabilities to be a program law. Such a law might pay universities to conduct teacher training programs and research efforts regarding the provision of effective instruction to children with disabilities. It might also provide educational resources to help locales provide necessary services.

CONCLUSIONS

Laws such as China's Compulsory Education Law may stimulate the development of special education programs. The comparison of this law with the United States' Public Law 94-142 suggests that one law may be a beginning, but not an end, to enabling legislation for special education services. The law encouraging the education of children in China who have disabilities is a landmark. However, without the assurance of a more specific law and the necessary resources to implement legal provisions, it is almost impossible to provide such a large population with special education of high quality. This paper has suggested evolving legal provisions that may assist societies in providing education to all children with disabilities.

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NOTES

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INTERNATIONAL NETWORKS IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

by Tony Best

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The creation of a consortium of agencies concerned with staff development can enable the development of various models of cascade or franchise training; i.e., one "expert" centre supports a number of other centres in their delivery of training. A consortium can also enable agencies to work together on the creation and delivery of training materials. This paper describes three international projects that used consortia (networks) to promote staff development.

NETWORKS

A network can operate at several levels. Six levels of operation are suggested here: advising, directing, supporting, exchanging, cooperating, and collaborating. Each level of operation presents a different model of organisation and purpose.

In the *cascade* model, a lead agency organises training for staff from other centres. They, in turn, pass on skills to other work colleagues or students. The lead agency may develop the training materials and support their graduates through advice on implementing the training. This type of network will be "loose" unless the lead agency decides to become more closely involved through encouraging the exchange of information among those who receive training.

In the *franchise* model, a number of centres will buy in a package of support that includes all that is needed to deliver training. This may include staff development, time tables, training materials, reading and support materials, ongoing monitoring, and advice. The lead agency directs the operation and is able to insist on standards in delivery. The center where the training is delivered benefits from the expertise of the lead agency, and it enables them to offer training that their own staff may not be able to deliver. This network is an essential part of the operation, and is controlled by the directing agency.

For the *licensing* model, one agency develops and sells a training package, but will allow it to be used only under certain conditions, usually related to the background or experience of the staff who are to deliver the training. This is to ensure that the materials are interpreted correctly, and that trainees will have their questions answered by someone with appropriate knowledge. The training should then result in successful skills learning or knowledge acquisition. Support from the lead agency will be included as part of the license, often including some initial familiarisation with the training package and access to updates in the

materials. Actual delivery will be the concern of the centre offering training and outside the direction of the materials development centre. The support network will exist for the duration of the license.

The next three levels of operation are based on consortia rather than lead agencies and "clients." A number of centres can agree to *exchange* information to inform each other of activities and developments. A closer form of operation involves *cooperation*, often on the development of new materials or courses. This implies agreed action by all agencies to do, or not to do, something and may well be within the context of a joint project rather than a simple exchange of information.

Collaboration implies a number of equal partners working together to develop an end product. In the context of staff development, this might result in a common course offered jointly at a number of centres, or the production of a set of training materials that can be used by each of the collaborating centres involved in its production.

The networks created by cooperation and collaboration are usually issue- or product-based, and exist for as long as there is work to be done. This should mean they have clear aims and a method of evaluating when the network has completed its work.

The three projects described in this paper are examples of different forms of networking. The models that are examined involve a staff development service, a training consortium, and a regional support package for development. Each project is concerned with the field of sensory impairments, although the models could be used equally as well in other fields.

A STAFF DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

This project involves European cooperation on staff development in services for deaf-blind people. Services in a number of European countries have planned and set up a European Centre for Staff Development, which is located in Denmark and attached to a well-established centre for Nordic staff training. The centre is designed to provide a focus for activities in information exchange, materials development, research into educational methodology, and training activities for staff trainers.

In this model, each agency providing direct services to clients contributes to a centre that will enable its training staff to receive an enhanced level of support in their work. Because of the low incidence of deaf-blindness, it has been possible for this cooperation to be on a European scale, as most countries have only two or three centres or agencies dealing with these clients.

The service was developed over 15 years ago to provide training in this low-incidence special area for all staff working in Norway, Sweden, Finland, Denmark, and Greenland (Davison, 1991). Funded by a Nordic council for social affairs, each country has a position on the management board. Although some of the countries now provide national training in this field, the centre still provides the majority of staff training. The centre also provides an information service and library, and has a publication unit.

The European service evolved from a meeting of people responsible for staff training in schools and centres for deaf-blind people, and in teachers' colleges and universities. The participants agreed that each country and type of service had common concerns and interests, and they formed a European Committee to create opportunities to develop staff trainers. The committee held a series of European conferences, each attended by 30-40 people, at which an exchange of information took place on topics such as the philosophy of staff development, exchange visits for staff, content of introductory level training, and resources for training staff. The value of this exchange of information was quickly recognised. Here were professionals, each carrying out the training role in comparative isolation and sometimes under considerable stress, who were enabled to develop new skills as trainers and share their ideas with others who could provide informed feedback.

The committee's activities then developed to the next stage of collaboration. The conferences had identified a number of topics about which more was needed to be known, and working groups of 4-6 people set up to examine these. There are now four active working groups, with another four due to start during 1993-4. They each have as a paramount aim the creation of materials that can be used in staff development: guidelines on teaching; videos; workshops organised for colleagues; monographs of ideas generated by the group. For example, a book on communication has been compiled by a group of four psychologists (Jacobsen et al, 1992), and an "expert workshop" on partial sight has been held at which 20 invited experts from the fields of neurology, psychology, ophthalmology, and education discussed state-of-the-art knowledge, and identified regional and international priorities for development.

To help the working groups achieve their aim, a "study institute" will be held in 1994. This will be a group meeting to complete their study of the topics and produce a final version of their materials. It will be held at a university where library, video, and printing facilities will be available. A general conference will be held immediately following the institute at which the working groups will present their achievements.

Another venture of the committee has been a European training workshop. The topic of the five-day skills teaching workshop was supervision of staff. Participants came from ten European countries, and all were involved with staff development. It was an ambitious venture because of the different national philosophies on managing staff, roles of staff, and learning styles. These differences quickly became apparent in the responses of the participants to the sessions: some preferred experiential sharing, while others felt most engaged with lists of principles and hints on what to do; some found solutions to one specific problem most relevant, while others could not see that the same issue was a problem. These differences were very much more pronounced that would be found within one national group. However, skillful leadership resulted in these differences being perceived as a strength of the workshop, with participants being offered a wider perspective on the topic.

The further development of this staff development service will increase the opportunities for exchange, cooperation, and collaboration. Although initially based in one centre, elements of the service will, in future, operate from a number of centres, and this would ensure that responsibility is not assumed to reside with one office. The committee anticipates that, to work successfully, potential users must see themselves as participants with responsibilities to contribute to the network.

INTERNATIONAL NETWORK/CONSORTIUM

Within the field of sensory impairments, there is only a small number of centres offering training to staff, because of the low number of teachers who need training. This creates a number of problems. Each centre tends to have a small number of staff offering specialist training, and that staff member (it is often just one person) may have difficulty teaching the range of topics needed by students. In addition, keeping abreast of recent training resources may be difficult; there are limited opportunities to be informed about current practice in the field; little time is available to develop training resources; and professional development is hindered by the absence of colleagues to challenge one's knowledge.

One solution to some of these problems is the creation of a consortium of training agencies that can complement each other's areas of expertise. One such consortium has been established in Latin American countries for the development of training in the field of deaf-blindness.

The first stage in this project involved an outside development agency bringing together representatives from the educational services for deaf-blind people in five countries in Latin America. Those representatives were aware of the need to develop their services, but were not sure how they should prioritise and plan for development. The development agency consultant helped them to carry out a needs survey over a five-day seminar. At the end of this process (based on the Personal Futures Planning Model, Mount, 1990), the group had identified their objectives.

Seven schools became involved; each had a staff member who was interested in the education of deaf-blind children, but only one person had received any formal training. Senior staff had some ideas of what should

be taught, but had little experience of delivering training and had no access to training materials. One of the options considered was a form of distance education.

An action plan was created, which empowered the group to develop their own programme of study with some initial help from outside consultants. It involved the creation of an issue-based consortium, i.e., representatives from schools and colleges met to agree on the contents of a training course, design a delivery system, and develop training materials.

The first stage of identifying the course content was the delivery of a training course, by a US consultant, on approaches to teaching deaf-blind children. From this, the consortium members were able to identify important information for their own courses.

The second stage, designing a delivery system, also used the support of an outside consultant. Distance education was considered as a way for relatively inexperienced staff to gain access to high quality materials. There are many different ways of defining distance education (Holmberg, 1983; Moore, 1990; Rumble, 1990; Verduin & Cook, 1991). In the US, the term is commonly used for teaching which is distant in place. The teacher and students are in different cities and linked by a television system that allows students in several locations to watch the same lecture. In Europe, the term is more commonly used for teaching which is distant in both place and time. A lecture is recorded on videotape, or converted into an "active learning text," which the students can study when and where they wish. The teacher who prepares the materials may never meet all the students who use them. In fact, one strength of this system is that the materials development centre can use the most knowledgeable academics on a topic. The students, supervised by an informed local mentor or tutor, have access to the best trainers. The number of students who can register for a course is limited only by the number of mentors available, and students can undertake their training from wherever they are.

This form of training has been used successfully to train teachers of special needs children in several countries. In the UK, the University of Birmingham has over ten years experience in delivering training through written texts. Training institutes in Pakistan, Kenya, and the USA have more recently started to deliver some of their training in the same way. In Kenya, for example, the Institute of Special Education converted its general special education course into a distance education format and, as a result, was able to increase annual student enrollment from 20 to nearly 500.

The next stage of this project, to be completed during 1993, is a workshop which will bring together members of the consortium, representatives from a university specialising in distance education, and a consultant experienced in special education and distance education. The aim of the workshop is to agree on a delivery system, identify a student support system, and teach materials development skills (e.g., authorship, video construction, technological resources). At the end of this workshop, an action plan should have been developed which will give each member a role in materials development (linked to their area of professional knowledge). The university will be responsible for monitoring progress, editing materials, and providing additional training for the materials development team.

In this project, a collaborative consortium is creating a set of materials that no single school could have developed. The strengths of each of the members are being used; members are also acquiring staff development skills through guided practice. The materials will have been developed locally by staff familiar with the culture and needs of the teachers, thereby avoiding the "Not Made Here" syndrome which often results in training materials not being acceptable to potential users.

REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PACKAGE

The third model of networking involves a package of support which empowers schools to develop their own staff development programs. The example given here involves an outside agency providing a forum to develop the regional development plan, running training workshops, advising individual centres in implementing the training, organising study tours for key personnel, supporting the development of regional resource personnel, and guiding centres as they incorporate staff development plans into their working practice.

Several countries in Southeast Asia have an interest in developing services to deaf-blind children; classes already exist in schools in Indonesia, Singapore, South Korea, and Thailand. A number of schools for the blind and for the deaf have accepted children with combined vision and hearing difficulties, and now want to provide a more appropriate curriculum and teaching approach for them. This fact was uncovered during a needs survey workshop for administrators of the special education services. From this information, a development plan was drawn up. A principle underlying this project was that requests for help should come from the local services and not be imposed by an external agency. A second principle was that any project should result in local services being able to continue without support from the development agency.

The design of the training was based on information collected during visits to schools. This information was used to identify service aims, current and desired staff skills and resources, and priorities for development. The next step in the process is to identify appropriate staff development activities, selected from a "menu" of over 40 possible ways to support staff. The process also ensures that non-training issues are addressed, such as buying new equipment, altering staffing patterns, changing staff roles, and relocating activities. Without attention to these non-training issues, staff development activities often have very little effect on working practice.

The training was delivered in 2 two-week blocks, with participants required to undertake project work between the two blocks. In the first block, key concepts were introduced, and participants shared information about their own programmes. Some skills teaching was included, and participants were given projects for the six months between study blocks. The projects involved examining elements of the physical teaching environment, assessment of children, and recording the use of specific teaching approaches. The second study block was based on guided discussion among participants on their own project work. At the end of the training, each participant developed an action plan to further implement aspects of the training. Staff from the development agency made visits to a number of centres about six months after the training to support the implementation of those action plans.

The two trainers who organised the study blocks were from the USA and the UK. Both had previous overseas experience, but needed to be aware of cultural factors influencing the participants. Without this, a network is in danger of becoming a mere copy of other models ("more like us"); most countries recognise and resent this practice.

A number of publications are available for international assignees (McCarthy, 1990; Ronen, 1989; Smith & Luce, 1979) to alert them to the aspects of other cultures, although few cover special education and attitudes to people with disabilities (e.g., Best, 1991). Staff working in other cultures certainly need to consider factors such as hierarchies of authority, causes of shame or dishonour, concepts of loyalty, accepting and declining social invitations, family roles, and expectations of children. For example, discussion groups may need to be single-sex if participants are to feel comfortable; conventions of politeness may prevent participants from questioning the trainer, as this implies criticism of the trainer's delivery; evaluation forms may be completed with all enthusiastic comments as a matter of course. These problems can be avoided with alternative ways of presenting and organising the activities.

Another element in the package of support given in this project is the overseas study tour. The development agency arranged for three educators in the region to have a period in the USA to visit schools and training institutes. This should help them become lead resource people within their region as they create their own networks to support colleagues.

At the end of the project, each of the schools involved with the original training should be ready to become more independent in staff development. Perhaps by using the staff development process mentioned earlier, and with the support of regional resource personnel, they can develop their own plan of staff development activities which should become an integral part of the school's activities.

CONCLUSION

The use of international networks has enabled each of the schools involved to achieve more than any one of them could have done independently. Materials have been developed more quickly, and probably to a higher standard, than would otherwise have been possible. Each model requires a sensitivity to cultural and professional perspectives, but these are desirable attributes for all staff development personnel. It has required a recognition of mutual interests and the acceptance of other perspectives on working practice. The benefits to individuals working in a small field are: exposure to a range of approaches on staff development, support from informed colleagues, and opportunities to develop knowledge of teaching methodology that can be passed on to colleagues who work with the clients. The cost of maintaining these links is high, and the activities may take time away from the main purpose of the agencies, but the benefits make the use of this method likely to be continued as an integral part of staff development within the field of sensory impairments.

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POVERTY AND HANDICAP IN THE REPUBLIC OF YEMEN

by Azza Qirbi

Azza Qirbi, known also by her maiden name Ghanem, is an Associate Professor and Head of the Psychology Department in the Faculty of Education, Sana'a University, Republic of Yemen. Her special interest is the education and welfare of the handicapped. She received most of her higher education in Scottish and Welsh universities. She was the first Yemeni female to take a university degree and the first female Dean at Sana'a University.

The Republic of Yemen (ROY) lies in the southwestern corner of the Arabian peninsula. Its total area is 555,000 sq. km. and is largely mountainous in the west with desert in the east and a 2000 km. stretch of coastal plains. It was formed in May 1990 as a result of the unification of the Yemen Arab Republic (YAR) and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (PDRY). The last two years have been spent in continued efforts to integrate social, legal, economic, financial, political, and administrative systems that were quite different. This has been an added strain on an economy of country rated amongst the least developed countries of the world (UNDP, 1990); yet, Yemen is one of the few Arab countries in earnest pursuit of a democratic political system.

The per capita GNP was estimated in 1987 to be US$590 for YAR and US$420 for PDRY (UNDP, 1990). The GNP had increased by 25% by 1990, but this was offset by an inflation rate of 20-30% and the unofficial devaluation of the local currency to about one-fifth of its previous dollar value in the early 1980s.

One of the most serious matters that ROY faces is rapid population growth. It is estimated that the population is currently over 12.5 million (Sobhan et al, 1991) and that it could reach 21 million by the year 2008 (MPD Projections, 1991). Before the 1960s, growth rates were low due to high infant mortality, low maximum life expectancy, poor health conditions, and high levels of emigration (especially of males to other Arab countries and East Africa), but between 1975 and 1990, the population growth rate rose from 2.7% to 3.1%, one of the highest in the world (Alshargabi et al, 1992). The Ministry of Planning and Development has identified, as one of its major goals, the reduction of fertility rates (live births per female by the end of her reproductive years) from the present 8.4 to 6 by the year 2000, as well as the increase of contraception use from 5% to 35%, and the wider spacing of births to at least two years (Bahobeshi et al, 1991). A high population growth rate is clearly a contributory factor to poverty, poorer health standards, and a lower quality of life.

EDUCATION

At least 50% of the population in ROY is under 18 which puts great pressure on educational and health services. Between 1962 and 1988, primary education enrollments in YAR increased 18-fold (Share, 1992). Official figures for 1990/91 showed that 1.9 million children (i.e., one-sixth of the total population) were enrolled in basic education grades (1-9). However, the drop-out rate is quite high, and only 150,000 were enrolled in secondary education, teacher-training, or post-basic-education institutes. In addition, illiteracy rates are still high, and universal education has not been achieved. A demographic study in 1991 showed that rural women were the worst off. Illiteracy rates for those 10 years and over were approximately 15%, 36%, 44%, and 86% for urban males, rural males, urban females, and rural females, respectively (Alganad, 1992).

In this context and particularly because universal education has not been achieved, it has been difficult to persuade the authorities of the importance of special education for the handicapped in order to improve their living standards and quality of life.

HEALTH

Health services are inadequate in urban areas and lacking in most rural parts. Maternal mortality rates are nearly 50 times higher than in industrialized countries. Infant (under one year of age) and under-five mortality rates were given by several studies in the late 1970s and early 1980s as being in the range of 150 to 400 per 1000 (Kanstrup et al, 1980; Giama & Amine, 1983; Myntti, 1977). The latest UNICEF report gives an infant mortality rate of 114 per 1000 and an under-five rate of 192 per

1000 (UNICEF, 1992). Amongst the objectives of the National Population Strategies is the reduction by 50% of maternal mortality and the reduction of infant mortality to 60 per 1000 (Alhamdani et al, 1992; Assaeidi et al, 1992).

It has been estimated that malnutrition affects nearly 56% of children in Yemen (Alhamdani et al, 1992). A national study of preschool children in 1979 showed that stunting (height-for-age measure) and retarded growth consistent with chronic under-nutrition were greatest (at 70%) among children from the northern highlands, while wasting (weight-for-height measure) due to acute under-nutrition was greatest in the coastal regions of Tihama. Anaemia had a prevalence rate of nearly 50% in some areas (USAID, 1979), while another study has shown that 61% of children in northern governorates and 26% in southern governorates were under-weight (Ghoyal, 1991).

One added complicating factor which is peculiar to Yemen is the chewing of Qat (a green plant by the scientific name *cathaedulis forsk*). It is estimated that in northern governorates alone nearly 1.5 million adults chew it regularly (i.e., 27% of the adult population). It causes loss of appetite, loss of sleep, lower birth-weight infants of pregnant chewers, and is a strain on family budgets due to its high cost (Gomah et al, 1983), yet even the very poor chew it.

Perhaps the greatest achievements in the health sector have been those in the area of immunization. UNICEF has been directly responsible for most of those programmes, and has achieved between 1987 and 1990 increased immunization coverage for BCG from 33% to 100%, for DPT from 22% to 90%, and for measles from 25% to 75% approximately (UNICEF, 1991). The achievement of universal child immunizations for the six childhood diseases could be a major factor in reducing disability. However, the low standard of health services and an inadequate number of doctors (an average of one per 8411 people) are alarming (UNICEF, 1992; MOH-Plan, 1987). Moreover, most of these doctors are based in the major cities, and few reside in scattered villages in rural areas where 80% of the population live.

POVERTY INDICATORS

No poverty line has been defined in Yemen, and very few statistics are available to show income classifications or occupations of the population. The GNP per capita quoted earlier is, in fact, very low in comparison to the purchasing power and inflation rate. Most of the labour force (60-70% according to most studies) is involved in subsistence agriculture, and this is compounded by the very high dependency ratio due to large families. In 1991, the dependency ratio was such that every economically active person had to feed 4.65 other people (Share, 1992).

Poor health conditions, high mortality rates, high illiteracy rates, and acute shortage of skilled workers are definite indicators of poverty. Living conditions are also indicative of poverty. In northern governorates (which represent over 80% of ROY's population), it is estimated that only 49% of urban households and 14% of rural households have proper sanitation facilities; 85% of urban households and 40% of rural households have electricity; while 74% of urban dwellings as compared with 14% of rural ones have access to clean, piped, running water at home (1986 population census).

The recent discovery of oil and natural gas could improve economic standards. Oil exports increased from 4 billion riyals in 1988 to 6 billion riyals in 1990, accounting for 74% of total exports and covering 32% of the total imports bill. However, single commodity dependence is very risky, and attempts are also being made to encourage the further development of agriculture in the hope that it could become a major source of income to the country, but little progress can be made without proper investments to improve irrigation and agricultural technology.

INCIDENCE OF DISABILITY

Helander (1989) reviewed some 100 studies and held that 7-10% of the population in developing countries is disabled. Studies that have been carried out in Yemen in 1983, 1985, and 1988 have given disability rates ranging between 8-13% (Qirbi, 1987). All these studies have shown a very high incidence of auditory, visual, and physical handicaps (around 20% each). With better health services, the occurrence of visual and auditory disabilities which result from infections and inadequate medical care could diminish, but this is only speculation. It would seem realistic to assume 10% as a reasonable estimate of the incidence of handicaps for the near future. With a population of over 12.5 million and remembering that 50% of the population is under 18, it can be estimated that there are 600,000 handicapped young people and children in Yemen, a very high figure for such a small country.

EDUCATIONAL SERVICES FOR THE HANDICAPPED

The only services available in Sana'a (the capital) are a day school for the deaf and/or mentally retarded with just over 200 children and a residential centre for the blind which caters to 100 young men and children. There is also a residential school for about 150 boys who display social behaviour problems and/or delinquency. Similarly limited facilities are available in the major towns of Taiz, Hodeida, Mukalla, and Aden. All taken together obviously provide nowhere near what is needed in the way of services.

Until recently, the trend has been for the provision of residential services. The school for the deaf and mentally retarded in Sana'a, which was referred to above, was the first non-residential day school in the country; it was established two years ago. It is obvious that all 17 governorates need similar projects. Vocational training day centres have recently been established for about 30 blind people in Aden and for 85 with mixed handicaps in Mukalla. The Swedish voluntary organization, Radda Barnen, is introducing community rehabilitation centres in the towns of Taiz and Lahj. This is a new idea in Yemen and could help both the handicapped and their parents, especially those in remote areas. It could prove to be a viable alternative to expensive residential schools well beyond parents' reach.

Integration of the handicapped within the ordinary schools is made virtually impossible by the large size of classes; classes have over 80 pupils, especially in urban areas. Furthermore, teachers in basic education are often not trained; in fact, 16,000 of the 62,000 teachers in basic education in 1991/92 were inexperienced secondary school leavers performing their one-year compulsory service duty (Ghanim and Muttahar, 1991). In addition, schools are very poorly resourced and have no special facilities for the handicapped. Hence, it has been seen as futile at this stage to encourage integration; it would be seen as detrimental to both the handicapped child and normal classmates.

THE PRESENT STUDY

In order to obtain further information that might throw light on the relationship between poverty, mortality, and disability, a small-scale pilot study was conducted by the author. The aims of this study can be outlined briefly:

1.To gain further insight into the nature and extent of poverty

2.To provide more information about mortality rates and health care programs

3.To collect data about economic standards and prevalence of handicaps

4.To examine the relationships among poverty, mortality, and disability.

The study was based on the use of a questionnaire, using a small sample which included a rural area outside Sana'a and urban samples from the towns of Sana'a, Taiz, Ibb, and Aden. Information was obtained on 16 families in Ibb, 16 in Taiz, and 10 in Aden, where women attending a women's activity centre were asked to complete the questionnaire. The Sana'a sample of 18 households was obtained by visiting houses in a poor area of the city, while another sample of 18 households was obtained from a rural village just 40 km. outside Sana'a. The total number of questionnaires completed was 78 and involved a total sample size of 686 persons.

A copy of the questionnaire is included as Annex 1 to this paper.

RESULTS

It is realised that this is a very limited study, but it is seen as a pilot study that could provide fruitful data on which to base further investigations relating to handicap and disability. The results of the study are summarised below.

FAMILY STRUCTURES

Table 1 contains basic data about the families who participated in the study.

TABLE 1. Male/Female Percentages, Marriages, and Jobs

	Ibb (16)	Taiz (16)	Sana'a (18)	Aden (10)	Hagla (18)
Total number of persons in house	145	135	150	76	180
% of males over 15 of the total	21%	30%	26%	27%	22%
Married males as % of males over 15	32%	40%	52%	52%	77%
Males with a job as % of males over 15	32%	27%	37%	71%	80%
% of females over 15 of the total	33%	39%	26%	39%	23%
Married females as % of females over 15	36%	36%	52%	60%	80%
Females with a job as % of females over 15	20%	35%	32%	53%	--
Boys and girls as % of the total	46%	31%	46%	34%	54%
Consanguine marriages of total marriages	44%	11%	23%	50%	44%

A number of points are worth noting:

1. The proportion of males in these households was 25% of the total number, which is less than that of females at 32%. In the past, there have been more females than males in Yemen, but after the return of 800,000 Yemenis from Saudi Arabia and the Gulf (mostly males, but many with families), it would have been expected that the male/female ratio would have been more balanced. The proportion of children under 15 is 42%; this is lower than the national average of 49% (Ministry of Health, 1987). The Hagla rural sample was the only one with a higher representation of young persons (54%), but almost 80% of the population in Yemen live in rural areas. Extrapolation of these figures may mean that the results of this study are out of line with the national figures.

2. Married males represented 50% of the total males while married females represented 54% of females above 15. In relation to the greater number of females than males, this may seem surprising but is to be expected in a society where polygamy is common, even though no statistics are available as to its prevalence. Interestingly, the Hagla rural sample has a much higher percentage of married males and females, 77% and 80%, respectively.

3. In the samples drawn from the northern governorates (Sana'a, Taiz, and Ibb), 32% of the males had jobs and 29% of the females worked, although the figure for females may not be representative of other families since the sample was based on women who attend activity classes. It would be expected in the normal population that much fewer females work; e.g., the World Bank estimated that females in the "modern sector" represented 7% of the total labour force while females in agriculture were 37% of the labour force (World Bank, 1992).

In the Hagla sample, a much higher percentage had jobs: in the case of the males, 80% had jobs (mostly farming), while none of the females had jobs but were housewives and helped in farming.

In the Aden sample, 71% of males had jobs while 53% of the females had jobs. This is consistent with the socialist system that prevailed for 25 years, where free enterprise was restricted and salaries were low, making the paid job a must for both males and females.

TABLE 2. Educational Levels for Those Over 15 Years

		Post Secondary	Secondary 9 - 12	Basic 7 - 9	Basic 1 - 6	Illiterate	Not Specified
Hagla	Males	-	3	6	4	23	4
	Females	-	-	2	-	38	2
Sana'a	Males	4	13	11	9	3	-
	Females	-	6	6	9	10	9
Aden	Males	-	7	4	2	1	7
	Females	4	10	2	2	2	10
Taiz	Males	9	9	6	6	2	8
	Females	5	12	4	4	3	14
Ibb	Males	5	6	3	2	4	11
	Females	3	15	8	7	6	10

HANDICAP

LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Limited information was derived from the questionnaire about levels of education. The information that was obtained is summarised in Table 2. It can be seen that there was a much higher illiteracy rate in the Hagla rural sample; a higher level of education amongst females in the Aden, Ibb, and Taiz samples than the national averages, with a combined illiteracy rate of under 32% for all persons over 15. A number of interesting points emerged about handicap.

1. Consanguine marriages to first or second cousins are quite common in Yemen and, in this study, they averaged 34% of all marriages.

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This could be an important factor in relation to hereditary and genetic risks of handicap.

2. In Table 3, it can be seen that total handicaps averaged 7.1%, which is lower than previous estimates of 8-13% as given by studies

tions, and low female employment are contributing factors to the designation of a low priority to the needs of the disabled.

Universal basic education has not yet been achieved in Yemen, and illiteracy rates are still high, but this is no reason for the continued delay

TABLE 3. Handicaps as a Percentage of the Total

	Ibb	Taiz	Sana'a	Aden	Hagla
Eyesight or blindness	2%	2.2%	1.3%	2.6%	0.6%
Auditory	0.9%	0.8%	-	-	0.6%
Speech or oral	-	-	-	1.3%	0.6
Physical	1.3%	-	2%	2.6%	-
Psychological	2%	2.2%	2.6%	1.3%	0.6%
Serious illness causing handicap	1.3%	0.8%	0.6%	1.3%	-
Mental Retardation	-	1.4%	2%	-	-
Total	7.5%	7.4%	8.5%	9.1%	3.0%

carried out in Yemen. There was a high representation of visual problems as in previous studies, but auditory and oral problems were much fewer. Mental retardation was ignored, perhaps due to the difficulty of defining it.

Information was also obtained about economic factors which might be seen to influence the incidence of handicap.

1. The physical conditions of the homes were not good. The average number of rooms was 3-4. Almost all the urban homes had proper sanitation facilities, a clean piped water supply most of the time, and an electricity supply. The rural sample of Hagla had electricity, but no piped water supply; hence, they buy water, or women collect it from a common tap and carry it in a container. Proper sanitation is not available, and toilets are the latrine system with no flush system.

2. Information gathered about income levels revealed that, of the breadwinners in the 78 households, 7 made more than 10,000 riyals a month; 12 made between 5 and 10,000; 30 made between 2 and 5,000; and 26 made less than 2,000. This means that 74% earned less than the initial salary of a new graduate working in teaching or in government (salary 4500-5000/month, i.e., US$150). However, 36 others worked full-time or part-time, thus bringing subsidiary income. This would seem to indicate that each person working supports an average of 6.1 persons including self, which is considerably higher than the ratio which was mentioned earlier of 4.65.

3. There was a definite difference with regard to female jobs in the case of rural women, where none had jobs other than unpaid farming help to the male farmer. The highest proportion of males with jobs (80%) was in Hagla, where most of the males worked in farming and a few in the army. Most of the jobs of males in urban samples were in the modern sector services, while most of the female jobs were in teaching.

CONCLUSION

Economic and financial constraints in developing countries, like the Republic of Yemen, make it difficult to provide adequate educational and rehabilitative provisions for the disabled. This scarcity of resources was echoed by representatives from many developing countries at the International Meeting of Ministers Responsible for the Status of Persons with Disabilities which was held in Montreal in October 1992. In Yemen, poverty, high dependency ratios, low income levels, poor living conditions, and low female employment are contributing factors to the designation of a low priority to the needs of the disabled.

Universal basic education has not yet been achieved in Yemen, and illiteracy rates are still high, but this is no reason for the continued delay in the provision of special education services. Institutional care has proved very expensive, and low-cost alternatives must be sought, although integration seems unrealistic given the large numbers of children in ordinary classes. However, special classes could be established within existing schools, and special day schools could be built, at least in the major cities at moderate costs, although a major drawback to any of these developments is the total lack of qualified special education teachers and other personnel. Until such staff is available, little progress seems likely in the conditions of extreme economic stringency which prevail in Yemen.

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QUESTIONNAIRE OF HANDICAPS, MORTALITY, AND POVERTY

I. Personal Information

1. Area
   Name: .....
   City: .....
2. Total number of males 15 or over: .....
   How many are married: .....
3. How many work: .....
   What kind of work: .....
4. Their Educational Level:
   Post Secondary..... Secondary: .....
   Preparatory: ..... Primary: .....
   Illiterate: .....
5. Total number of females 15 or over .....
   How many are married: .....
6. How many work: .....
   What kind of work: .....
7. Their Educational Level:
   Post Secondary..... Secondary: .....
   Preparatory: ..... Primary: .....
   Illiterate: .....
8. Of the married couples, how many are consanguine: .....
   Of what kind of relation: First cousin: .....
   Second cousin: ..... Others: .....
9. Number of those under 15:
   Boys: ..... Girls: .....
10. Income of breadwinner: Over 10,000 riyals/mo: .....
    10,000-5,000: ..... Under 5,000: .....
11. Are there others that work: .....
    What is their monthly income: .....

II. Disabilities, Health Problems, and Mortality

	Number	Ages	Type	Cause
12. Eyesight				
13. Auditory				
14. Oral/Speech				
15. Physical/ Physiological				
16. Psychological				
17. Mental Retardation				
18. Serious Illness				
19. Children that Died				

III. Household Conditions

20. Total number of rooms: .....
    Kitchens: ..... Baths: .....
21. Availability of electricity: .....
22. Availability of piped water: ..... Other means: .....
23. What type of toilets: Flush ..... Latrines: .....
    Other: .....

Any other comments:

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HONG KONG IN 1997: THROUGH TRAIN OR ALL CHANGE?

by Nick Crawford

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INTRODUCTION

Hong Kong, after 156 years of British rule, will revert to Chinese sovereignty in 1997 to become a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of the People's Republic of China (PRC). This paper reviews some of the key developments in special education in Hong Kong, and considers the current issues and directions in the light of the changes leading up to the handover. Political commentators have argued that, in order to retain stability in Hong Kong, it is necessary to have structures and systems that are compatible with both the legal provisions and the spirit of the Basic Law jointly agreed by the PRC and the UK, so that there will be a smooth transition in 1997. This is described by China as "convergence" and by Hong Kong as the "through train."

Hong Kong has achieved remarkable success; the security of a benign colonial rule, the facility of a deep water harbour, and the energy of the immigrant Chinese population have changed the "barren island with hardly a house on it" (as originally described by Palmerston) to one of the world's leading commercial and banking centres. Hong Kong Territory is actually made up of a number of islands plus a part of the mainland of China. Hong Kong Island itself was ceded to the British in 1841, during the First Opium War; Kowloon peninsula was ceded by perpetual lease in 1860, while the New Territories, which include some 235 islands, were leased to Britain in 1989 for 99 years. However, in terms of the 1984 Sino-British Joint Declaration, Hong Kong Island and Kowloon are effectively included with those territories leased to Britain in 1898, and thus will transfer to Chinese sovereignty in the year 1997, when Hong Kong becomes a Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China.

Between 1981 and 1991, domestic exports increased at an average rate of seven percent per year, double that of world trade growth. Hong Kong, the jewel in the crown of capitalism, and its return to the last remaining communist giant in 1997, highlights many differences and tensions. The Joint Declaration provides that, for 50 years thereafter, Hong Kong may continue to enjoy an unchanged lifestyle. In order to help ensure a smooth transition or convergence, a Sino-British Joint Liaison Group was set up, although little progress has been claimed for the group's activities. Tensions and concerns, therefore, are shown not just in the Hang Seng (stock market) Index and in emigration, but possibly also within the education system.

The implications for change in education have not been addressed, even though the "one country, two systems" idea and political transition have been discussed in detail by a number of writers (e.g., Cheng, 1986). In one sense, the education system is familiar with change, since it has needed to respond continually to increasing demands for school places. At the end of World War II, the population in Hong Kong was a mere 600,000. Following the Japanese surrender in 1945, Chinese civilians returned in large numbers, sometimes at the rate of 100,000 a month. The influx was particularly marked during 1948-49 as the communists gained victory over the mainland Chinese Nationalist Government. By 1950, the population was estimated to be 2.2 million (Robert, 1992). With a present population of almost six million, it is easy to see that the main task of government has been to provide places during that period of rapid expansion. It is only comparatively recently that attention has moved from quantity to quality. To date, the ability of the education system to cope has relied on a centralised bureaucracy, the strict maintenance of organisational rules and regulations, and approval by superiors within a hierarchy, an example of what Hoy and Miskel would call "bureaucratic discipline and control" (1987). Qualitative changes would seem to call upon different resources and procedures.

Special education in Hong Kong has, traditionally, been developed by voluntary agencies subvented and monitored by the government. Being busy with the provision of free and compulsory education, the government was content to encourage the development of special schools by voluntary groups within a parallel and largely separate system. Now, with the current concerns about quality in education and an examination of the curriculum, both the nature and role of special education is being re-examined.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Primary education has been both free and compulsory since 1971, but it was not until 1978 that compulsory education was extended to nine years, by the addition of three years at junior secondary level. From that time, there have been insufficient places for pupils in government and aided schools. It has been necessary to acquire places in the private sector by a "bought places" scheme to ensure a free secondary school place for each primary school leaver.

This arrangement of government, government-aided, and private schools has played, and continues to play, a significant role in the development of education in general, and in meeting special educational needs in particular. Primary school leavers are allocated a place in a secondary school on the basis of three factors: parental choice, the ability of the pupil as measured by tests (internal school assessments, centrally-scaled), and the neighborhood in which the student lives. While the high achievers have been generally allocated to secondary schools of their first or second choice, the lower achievers have tended to enter private schools where three out of four teachers have no initial teacher training. Many children with learning difficulty, therefore, used to be placed in private secondary schools where there were fewer resources to meet their needs. Currently, 8.3 per cent of all secondary places are bought places, but, as a result of efforts by the Education Department to increase the number of government-aided schools over the last decade, the share of the private secondary sector has fallen from 35.9 per cent in 1982 to less than 14 per cent (Education Department, 1991, p. 65).

Ninety per cent of secondary schools are grammar schools; the other two types (technical and pre-vocational) together represent only about one tenth of all available secondary schools. The majority of pupils in secondary schools, therefore, is confronted with an examination-led grammar school curriculum, but, more significantly, is faced with a change in the medium of instruction. The medium of instruction for 90.7 percent of all primary pupils is Chinese. Out of a total of 442 secondary schools, only 24 offer instruction exclusively through the medium of Chinese (Education Department, 1991, Table 4.1), even though, in the majority of cases, school pupils will use Cantonese in the home and in their daily lives. The use of a second language as the medium of instruction is unusual in that it is not used in the everyday life of ordinary people, unlike, say, the cases in India, Malaysia, or Singapore. The use of English and its perceived value lie in the fact that Hong Kong is a British Colony, and parents and employers wish to have their children and their employees educated in English language schools (actually called Anglo-Chinese schools). This desire to receive education in Anglo-Chinese schools has increased rather than abated as 1997 has come closer, since, following the Tianenman incident in Beijing, many have seen this as a possible route to gain a foreign passport. Consistent

with the *laissez faire* market economy operated by the Hong Kong Government, the Education Department has, remarkably, left the choice of medium of instruction to individual secondary schools. The proportion of schools providing a particular medium of instruction, therefore, is entirely dependent upon parental choice. Various writers have pointed out the increased risks in terms of behaviour and learning difficulties with which this practice is associated (e.g., Falvey, 1991).

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

Private and philanthropic endeavors have, as in many other countries, preceded government involvement in the development of education for special groups. The earliest provision has been for the most severely sensory handicapped. The first special school established was for the deaf in 1935 (Hong Kong Government, 1977). A massive influx of refugees followed World War II, and the development of special education was left very much to voluntary agencies under the general supervision of, and subvention by, the Education Department until the 1960s.

In 1960, the Education Department of the Hong Kong Government established a Special Schools Section to advise and regulate the special schools run by different voluntary agencies. A report underlined the importance of normalization for handicapped children, stating that they should mix with "normal" children, and argued that "handicapped children require as normal a form of education as possible" (Marsh and Sampson, 1963).

In 1976, a government working group produced a Programme Plan for Rehabilitation Services, which included special education, covered a ten-year period from 1975 to 1985, and which was published in the Green Paper of that year. It contained the group's main findings and recommendations, as well as a government acknowledgement of the inadequacy of services for the handicapped.

Government will have to provide some of the proposed additional services direct, but it must continue to rely on the support of the voluntary sector which has to date played a major and pioneering role in the provision of rehabilitation services in Hong Kong (Hong Kong Government, 1976, p. 2).

The Green Paper, entitled *The Further Development of Rehabilitation Services in Hong Kong* (Hong Kong Government, 1976), expressed the view that the disabled could "provide a useful and productive source of manpower," and argued for the expansion of services to the disabled, not primarily on human rights issues, but on essentially financial grounds: "for every dollar spent on rehabilitation, we are gaining back 17 to 35 dollars."

The Government White Paper, *Integrating the Disabled into the Community: A United Effort* (Hong Kong Government, 1977), represented, despite its pragmatic utilitarianism, an important stage in the development of rehabilitation. It did not establish the goal of providing full educational opportunities in the way that the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act* (PL-94-142) had two years previously in the USA, but it did spell out its policy objective to provide "such comprehensive rehabilitation services as are necessary to enable disabled persons to develop their physical, mental and social capabilities to the fullest extent," and it put rehabilitation and special education on the public agenda.

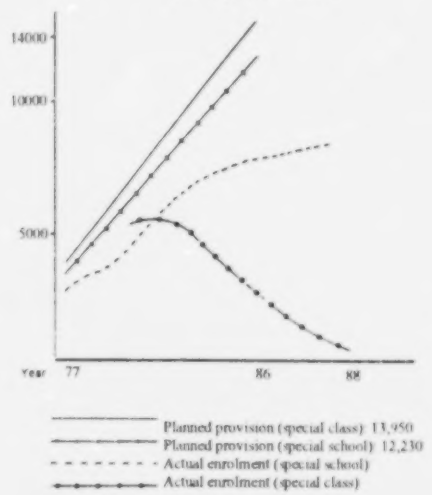
It formally set the framework for government policy in the field of special education and rehabilitation, but, paradoxically, the policy headed "Integrating the Disabled" set out a programme to increase the special school and special class population. The target figure in the White Paper was 12,000 special school places and 14,000 special class places by 1985-6. These plans to increase segregated provision, however, were overtaken by later events.

RHETORIC, POLICY, AND PRACTICE

The concept of special educational needs, central to the UK Education Act of 1981, has strongly influenced policy in Hong Kong. Special Education Section information handouts referring to "pupils who suffer from any disability of mind and body" (taken from Section 8(2) of the Education Act 1944) were changed in 1985 to reflect Section 2(1) of the 1981 Act by referring to special needs. The removal of special classes, and the substitution of categorical labels such as "mildly mentally handicapped," "slow learner," and "maladjusted in mainstream" by the term "children with learning difficulties" (CWLD) reflected the Education Department's intention to conform with UK practice and meet special needs in mainstream, but, while the direction was consistent with the rhetoric of many Western countries, these changes were being attempted against a very different background.

The figures for planned provision for special schools and classes (shown in Figure 1) are taken from the ten-year rehabilitation plan set out in the White Paper (Hong Kong Government, 1977). As Figure 1 illustrates, a slowing down of the rate of growth in special schools occurred, but much more dramatic was the fall in enrollment in special classes. This was the result of a change in policy which followed the publication of the report of a working party reviewing secondary special classes (Education Department, 1981). Figure 1 below shows the discrepancy between the plan to expand segregated provision as set out in 1977 and the present position.

Figure 1. Comparison of Actual Enrollment with Planned Provision *(Crawford, 1990)*



Secondary special classes were begun in 1978 with the introduction of nine-year compulsory education, in order to receive pupils leaving primary special classes. At the time of the 1981 survey, there were four types of special classes in ordinary schools: partially sighted (80 pupils), partially hearing (282), slow learning (4,822), and maladjusted (546). The working party surveyed attitudes of the head teachers of 37 schools operating special classes, the teachers in both the ordinary and special classes, parents, and pupils. It was claimed that special class pupils were not integrating well in schools, and that pupils of special classes for maladjusted and slow learning pupils held negative attitudes towards their placement. While many ordinary teachers viewed that special schools would be better for such pupils (i.e., increased segregation), the recommendations of the survey were that the highest priority be accorded to meeting pupils' special needs within the mainstream, that support services to mainstream be strengthened, and that only the existing special classes for partially hearing and partially sighted should be retained. It was also recommended that special educational needs should form part of ordinary teacher training programmes (Education Department, 1981).

The decision to close special classes took place in the same year as UK legislation (1981) removed the categories of handicap (in place since the 1944 Act) and replaced them with the notion of special needs. The 1981 Education Act in Britain implemented some of the recommendations of the Warnock Report, which was also influential in guiding policy

in Hong Kong:

"Our conclusion that up to one child in five is likely to need special educational provision in the course of his school career does not mean that up to one in five is likely to be handicapped in the traditional sense of the term". We refer to the group of children - up to one in five - who are likely to require some form of special educational provision at some time during their school career as "children with special educational needs" (D.E.S., 1978).

The softening of the distinction between the handicapped and the non-handicapped, and the recognition that the number of children likely to have significant learning difficulties in their school lives was considerably higher than the number of children within special schools and classes, underlined the need for a re-appraisal of special needs provision.

A visiting panel of experts, invited to review education in the Territory, briefly referred to special education in its report when it stated that prejudices, superstition, and stereotyping needed to be overcome: "a community which sees its disabled members as having flaws rather than needs not only diminishes and impedes its disabled members but also itself" (Llewellyn, 1982).

This added impetus to efforts to integrate those with special needs into the mainstream, and the closure, commencing in 1981, of the special classes meant that schools needed to be more flexible in dealing with a wider range of abilities and also needed to be better supported. A range of services was therefore set up to provide remedial advisory help to schools, in addition to a number of revised resource classes (RRC), where pupils could receive remedial help in tool subjects (Chinese, English, Mathematics) but, unlike the old special classes, remain on the roll of the ordinary class.

In 1983, a General Administrative Circular (No. 33/83) was sent to all schools, announcing the reorganization of special educational provision for children with learning difficulties in the ordinary school, previously described as the maladjusted, the mildly mentally handicapped, and slow learners. The aim expressed in the circular was "to facilitate integration." Further, to assist in the remedial work of both primary and secondary aided schools, additional teachers were approved (Education Department, 1982). The intention was to strengthen mainstream support for children with learning difficulties by providing teachers for remedial groups.

Unfortunately, these measures were not sufficient to resource the needs of students or, indeed, of schools. While that particularly complex and divisive issue of medium of instruction continued to be unresolved, none of the recommended changes dealt with the fundamental issues facing the system, namely, curriculum reform, school management, and staff development. But there was another difficulty concerning the secondary school system and the provision available to it under the Intensive Remedial Service (IRS). While in 1988-9 there were more than 300 RRCs in the primary sector, there were only 9 secondary schools which operated RRCs, since many schools were unwilling to operate them. Pupils unable to find a place in RRCs at the secondary level were invited to attend one of five Resource Teaching Centres (RTCs) sited around the Territory, and to receive intensive remedial teaching in the basic subjects. In 1988-9, about 1500 pupils used this services, available only after normal school hours. Perhaps not surprisingly, many pupils invited by the Education Department claimed that the centres were too far away from their homes or that the times of the remedial sessions were not convenient.

RESPONDING TO THE NEED FOR CHANGE

The attempts during the 1980s to integrate students from special classes into the ordinary schools created increased strains on the entire education system, particularly on the secondary phase. This was not just because one in three secondary schools in the early 80s was private, but largely because ordinary teachers did not see children with learning difficulties as their problem. Status in teaching was and is associated with teaching subjects at high level (there are no graduate posts in primary schools), and it is more usual for junior teachers with little experience to be asked to work with CWLD (Crawford, 1990). Integrating children with CWLD inevitably brings failure if the teachers, bound by the examination-related curriculum, doggedly lead the children through the curriculum instead of adapting the curriculum to their needs. Children receiving intensive help in primary resource classes are asked to sit the same end-of-term examinations and participate in the Secondary School Places Allocation System.

Unfortunately, integrating special class students with learning difficulties into the ordinary classroom was not to be achieved by the addition of remedial teachers nor by the use of RTCs for secondary students. Much more substantial changes were needed to take special needs from its limited position and make special needs provision part of a whole school agenda for change.

The difficulty faced by Hong Kong was that, while it espoused Western rhetoric in terms of the need to integrate the students with special educational needs into the ordinary school, the school system was organised on formal lines and concerned with sorting and sifting. The success with which schools can integrate students with learning difficulties is as dependent on the flexibility of the curriculum, the support networks within the school, and the support to the school, as it is on types and levels of disability.

The Education Department set out to increase the number of government and aided schools in order to ensure higher standards and to allow advisory and support services to be used more effectively. In order to improve quality and encourage choice, a Direct Subsidy Scheme for private schools (proposed in Education Commission Report No. 3) was introduced which, subject to specified standards, provides public subsidy but does not determine the curriculum. The "bought place" scheme, as part of this process, is planned to end in the year 2000. In addition, the number of places at tertiary institutes was increased by a "blister" programme for in-service initial teacher training. Overall, 20 per cent of teachers in primary and secondary schools have no initial teacher training (Education Department, 1991).

In 1991, the School Management Initiative, commencing with a few aided secondary schools, addressed a number of key problems, such as "poorly defined management structures and processes" and an "emphasis on detailed controls, rather than frameworks of responsibility" (E.M.B., 1991, p. 9). Literature on effective schools and examples of practice have been drawn from Australia, Singapore, the UK, and the USA in order to set out recommendations. The recognition that the quality of management has significant effects on the quality of learning and teaching and the need to decentralise control is linked with the desire to gain value for money by shifting budget responsibility, eventually, to the school via a block grant. While in the UK, a similar programme (Local Management of Schools) seemed to be driven more by budget considerations, the need for this initiative is based on the paucity of good school managers. The development of the profession of teaching is linked inextricably with good school management.

Perhaps the most important and far reaching recommendations for change have come from the Education Commission, the highest advisory body on education, set up following the recommendations of the visiting panel in 1982. The title of the Education Commission's Fourth Report (1990) highlighted, perhaps, a concern which was confronting the system: *The Curriculum and Behavioural Problems in School.* The Report dealt with five main topics, not new to Hong Kong and not new to the work of the Commission since it had deliberated and reported on a number of these before: curriculum development, mixed mode schooling, assessing attainment, medium of instruction, and learning and behaviour problems in schools.

Two chapters of the Report (Education Commission, 1990) were concerned with "Special Education Provision" and four groups of students were identified: those with learning difficulty, severe learning difficulty, those who are "unmotivated," and those who are "academically gifted." The Report suggests that 14 per cent of students in Hong

Kong have special educational needs and proposes responses to meet the needs of the groups described under the subheading: Education Enhancement Measures. For those students with learning difficulty, the IRS is to be replaced by a "school-based remedial support programme" to cater for the bottom 10 per cent. Students with severe learning problems, those "who cannot benefit from the ordinary curriculum even with the help of the existing IRS," are to be catered for by seven new special schools called "Skills Opportunity Schools." That the new schools' acronym is S.O.S. does not indicate whether it is the school system or the student at risk! It would appear, in either event, that retaining pupils in the school and providing school-based support or, better still, developing whole school approaches, is a way of creating not merely more inclusive schools but of ensuring that resources needed for the enhancement of learning remain in the school. Curriculum differentiation does not necessarily require separate schooling.

The third group of students, said to be "unmotivated," is defined as those who "cannot benefit fully from the common core curriculum." The proposal here is to place such pupils in "practical schools" and the Report estimates that there are about 2,000 such pupils. Finally, in complete contrast, the "academically gifted students" are not to be placed in special schools; unlike the unmotivated and those with severe learning difficulty, but are to be supported by a resource team and centre which will encourage teachers to "experiment with and improve their current teaching" (p. 50). This is, of course, the opposite argument presented for the other two student groups. Potts (1991) asks "is it only that students with a high social value have a right to a curriculum that matches their interests and abilities? ... How can the focus on gifted children be justified, except in terms that reflect an inequality between students based on differences in ability?"

The removal of students who do not fit the system removes also the need for reform. Pupils experiencing difficulty "point to the need to improve schooling in ways that will enable them to achieve success" (Ainscow, 1991). Indeed, the fact that students experience difficulty in learning must signal that teachers are having difficulties teaching. If "unmotivated" pupils, for example, cannot benefit from the common core curriculum, does this not argue for curricular reform? Do not all children have the right to a balanced and broadly based curriculum? This would appear to be the Commission's view in a more recent publication:

> Every school should help all its students, whatever their level of ability, and including those with special educational needs, to develop their potential as fully as possible in both academic and non-academic outcomes (Education Commission, 1992a, p. 15). The rhetoric is not entirely consistent with policy.

In a report devoted to teacher education (Education Commission, 1992b), only a cursory mention is made of "special school teachers." The continued separation of training for this group reinforces the separation of provision and prevents special education getting on to the agenda of school reform (UNESCO, 1988).

1997 AND EDUCATIONAL POLICY

While Hong Kong is attempting to raise the quality of education by reforming school management, setting up a Curriculum Development Institute, and moving the teaching force towards graduate qualification in both primary and secondary schools, it is still faced with many challenges. Not least of these is the issue of medium of instruction, a subject too complex to discuss in detail here (see Johnson, 1985 and Luke, 1991).

It does need to be pointed out, however, that the students who have learning difficulty or who are unmotivated and are to be placed into separate special schools may well have less difficulty and be more highly motivated were they to be taught in Cantonese. An examination of over-age pupils through primary and secondary showed that the percentage of over-age pupils increases from 4 per cent to 17 per cent in six years of primary schools, and increases to almost one in three of the final year of compulsory schooling (Crawford and Hui, 1991). Such figures suggest that the removal of pupils from the secondary phase, the same pupils who (presumably) were unmotivated and had learning difficulties in primary schools, says more about the organisation of secondary schools, medium of instruction, and the lack of support available to pupils and teachers, than it does about the nature of excluded pupils. In Hong Kong, "we need to be able to meet individual needs ... before we can successfully integrate those with special needs" (Crawford and Yung, in press).

There is considerable concern in the media about disaffection from school and misbehaviour, even though to most Westerners, and in comparison with behaviour problems elsewhere, school pupils in Hong Kong appear obedient and well-behaved. The issue of student suicides has been of particular concern and has brought the grammar school curriculum, counselling, psychological support services, and the family into the arena for public debate. It is clear that the 1997 issue is destabilising in a number of ways. Some families, for example, have been separated because parents have lived abroad to gain passport status or children have studied abroad. There is uncertainty, despite assurances of the continuity of the education system and of the form of government following the resumption of Chinese sovereignty. Cultural influences from the West, in school and in the media, coupled with a fragmenting of traditional Chinese values in an increasingly urban, modern, and industrialised community, have created an identity crisis for Hong Kong Chinese. In a recent seminar, an experienced teacher stated an often-expressed view: students get lost with a lack of a sense of belonging ... of something stable in the society, because of change in the social and political climate (Crawford and Zubrick, 1990).

In most cases when colonial rule ends, the population looks forward to increased freedom and self-determination. This is not the case in Hong Kong. Those same constraining structures, set up by a benign colonial government to retain control and to prevent communist subversion, appear now to be more dangerous tools when placed in the hands of new rulers (e.g., Regulation 892(1), which forbids any instruction, document, or text to be used in schools without the approval of the Director of Education). Since colonial schools have regularly been used to assist in the consolidation of foreign rule (Kelly and Altbach, 1984), it seems clear that education will continue to be centre stage beyond 1997.

In the Governor's annual address to the Legislative Council in October 1992, the new Governor of Hong Kong, Christopher Patten, made a number of proposals which caused disquiet in the People's Republic of China. The proposals which caused particularly strong responses were those concerned with political development: increasing democracy and democratic representation. Education was also included in the Governor's policy speech. Raising the standards in primary and secondary schools was placed as the top priority, and there was a particular focus on individuality: "children are first and foremost individuals" (Governor of Hong Kong, 1992, p. 8) - arguably another systemic difference from the PRC. Perhaps, in strongly supporting the long-awaited policy review of rehabilitation services contained in the new Green Paper (1992), *Equal Opportunities and Full Participation: A Better Tomorrow For All*, the Governor reflected not just concerns for the disabled, but the aspirations of an entire community.

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SPECIAL EDUCATION DOWN UNDER

by David R. Mitchell

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1989 saw a dramatic restructuring of the administration of education in New Zealand. Some of the key elements of these reforms included (a) the separation of policy, regulatory, and delivery functions in education; (b) a shift from the use of input controls to a reliance on quantifiable output measures and performance targets; (c) the reduction of public monopolies; and (d) a shift of responsibility for the governance and management of learning institutions from the center to elected boards of trustees responsible for individual institutions. This paper will outline how these principles, and the tensions that are present among them, are impacting on special education in New Zealand. Particular reference will be made to the changing role of the Special Education Service, a government agency which is responsible for providing advice, guidance, and support for people under 21 with difficulties in learning and development.

EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN NEW ZEALAND

Any analysis of New Zealand's special education system must be embedded in the broader framework of the national education system, a system which has undergone dramatic change since October 1989. These reforms are similar to those which have occurred or are in process in many other countries, but have gone further and faster than in most. For the most part, these reforms were expressed in the Education Act (1989) and had earlier been outlined in the Picot Report (Taskforce to Review Education Administration, 1988) and in a government document, *Tomorrow's Schools* (Lange, 1988). They were based on five fundamental principles of equity, quality, efficiency, effectiveness, and economy. When applied to the education system, these principles resulted in the system being characterised by the following:

1. The institution (e.g., a school) is the basic "building block" of educational administration, with control over its educational resources within overall guidelines set by the Minister of Education. No intermediate bodies exist between the Ministry of Education and the individual learning institution; indeed, the reforms abolished 12 education boards that used to serve at that level.

2. The institution is run as a partnership between the professionals and the particular community in which it is located. Boards of trustees with governance responsibilities are the mechanism for this partnership. In primary and intermediate schools, these boards comprise five elected parent representatives, one elected staff representative, and the principal. Secondary schools and schools with a secondary component are required to have a student representative as well. Schools may co-opt up to four persons, having regard to the type of skills needed to function effectively, the ethnic and socio-economic composition of the school's student body, and the country's gender balance.

3. The institution sets its own objectives within the overall national guidelines set by the Minister of Education. These objectives should reflect the particular needs of the community in which the school is located and should be clearly set out in the institution's charter, which acts as a contract between the institution and the community, and the

institution and the Minister.

4. The Ministry of Education provides policy advice to the Minister, administers property, and handles financial flows and operational activities.

5. Each institution is accountable for the government funds it spends on education and for meeting the objectives set out in its charter. To ensure that this accountability obligation is met, learning institutions are reviewed every three years by the Education Review Office.

The *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms disbursed responsibility for special education among the above agencies, all under the general oversight of the Minister of Education. Boards of trustees are required to include the following goal in their charters:

To enhance learning by ensuring that the school's policies and practices seek to achieve equitable outcomes for students of both sexes, for rural and urban students; for students from all religions, ethnic, cultural, social, family and class backgrounds and for all students, irrespective of their ability or disability (Department of Education, 1989, p. 10)

The Ministry of Education is responsible for ensuring that this objective was appropriately addressed in the schools' charters, and the Education Review Office for seeing that schools meet the objective. The Special Education Service (SES), a newly-established, fully-funded, and independent agency, provides a free, non-contestable service to learning institutions and caregivers of students with difficulties in learning or development. (As will be noted later in this chapter, the SES's role is currently under review.)

SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL PROVISION

In addition to the services provided by the SES (which will be discussed in more detail below), special education provisions for school-age children within New Zealand are administered under the Education Act (1989). This Act provides qualified support for the principle of mainstreaming, Section 8 of the Act stating that "except as provided in this Part of this Act, people who have special education needs (whether because of disability or otherwise) have the same rights to enroll and receive education at state schools as people who do not." The exception envisaged is when the Secretary of Education agrees with the person's parents that the person should be enrolled at a particular state school, special school, special class, special clinic, or special service. The Secretary also retains the right to direct the person's parents to so enroll the person, with rights of reconsideration of such a direction through a system of arbitration.

A range of provisions for students with special needs exists within primary (5 to 11-year-olds), intermediate (11 to 13-year-olds), and secondary (13 to 18-year-olds) schools.

Residential Special Schools. There are seven residential special schools: two for students who are hearing impaired; two for students of primary school age who are behaviorally disturbing; two for students with difficulties in learning; and one for students with visual disabilities. The seven schools are funded by the Ministry of Education.

Students with Intellectual Disabilities. In July 1990, there were 29 day special schools for students with intellectual disabilities, with a total of 435 students. The bulk of such students (1,113) was located in separate classes or units on regular school sites, while a further 342 were being educated in regular classes.

Students with Physical Disabilities. A total of 143 students with physical disabilities were enrolled in day special schools, 293 were in 42 units attached to regular schools, and another 251 were mainstreamed in regular classes.

Students with Visual Disabilities. Besides the 50 students in a residential special school, approximately 550 students with visual disabilities were attending regular schools supported by itinerant teachers attached to visual or sensory resource centres. A further 43 students attended units in regular schools.

Students with Hearing Disabilities. One hundred and thirty students with hearing disabilities were enrolled as boarders in the two residential special schools or as day pupils in schools. A further 186 were being educated in units attached to regular schools and another 172 in regular classes, supported by 32 itinerant teachers.

Students with Less Manifest Needs. The majority of the 3,597 students with less manifest special educational needs were being serviced by 252 resource teachers. These students, who among them had a widely varied combination of educational and social difficulties and physical and sensory impairments, were in separate classes or in regular classrooms.

Other Provisions. Special education services were also provided in institutions run by Area Health Boards. Included here are seven health camp schools, three hospital schools, and 26 hospital classes. In July 1990, 576 students were identified as receiving a service while resident in one of these facilities. Schools were also run in a small number of Department of Social Welfare institutions, although these are closing in line with that department's policy of maintaining children in their home communities. In addition, the Correspondence School provides assistance for students with special needs who are unable to attend school for whatever reason.

Special educators who work in regular schools generally occupy positions that are over and above the staff entitlement of those schools, and they are generally employed by those schools' boards of trustees. Management committees, comprising the school principal, the special education teacher, a representative of the SES, and two parent representatives responsible to the school's board of trustees, administer these resources. Special day schools, residential schools, and the Correspondence School have their own boards of trustees.

THE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICE

One of the major elements in the government's restructuring of special education was the establishment on 1 October 1989 of the Special Education Service (SES) as an independent Crown Agency. As specified in the Education Act (1989), the prime function of this agency is to "provide advice, guidance, and support for the benefit of people under 21 with difficulties in learning or development." It also plays a major role in determining eligibility for access to special education resources, including placement in the facilities outlined above. The SES brought together in a coordinated manner hitherto disparate groups of professionals: school psychologists, speech and language therapists, advisors on deaf children, and visiting teachers (the latter being responsible for liaison between schools and homes in cases of children with learning difficulties or behavioral problems). It also took on a new range of functions to provide a comprehensive early intervention service for infants and preschool children with special needs and their families.

CONTRACT WITH THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

In broad terms, the SES is charged with responsibility for assisting learning institutions to meet the requirements of their charters with respect to equity of outcomes for all children and young people and their families. It achieves this goal through a balance of direct intervention, consultation and advice, training and staff development (as specified in annual agreements), or contracts of service with the Ministry of Education. The purposes of these agreements are to (a) establish the basic legislative and policy framework parameters within which the SES operates, (b) specify purchase and ownership provisions, (c) specify the amounts to be paid for the services ($NZ38.8 million in 1992-93), and (d) provide for the evaluation of the quality of the services.

In the year ended 30 June 1991, services ranging from direct intervention to consultation and advice were provided for 43,600 students with difficulties in learning or development and/or learning institutions/caregivers (Special Education Service, 1991). Of these, nearly one-third (14,104) had current up-to-date individual education plans which had been developed in a process involving consultation among the child's parents, the SES, professionals within the school, and other relevant people. In addition, training courses for teachers and others

were provided. The following are excerpts from the recently-negotiated *agreement between the Ministry of Education* and the Special Education Service for the year, 1 July 1992 to 30 June 1993:

Preamble. Services are to be negotiated with individuals, caregivers, learning institutions, and other service providers. These services will:

1. increase the ability to respond effectively to the special educational and developmental needs of learners;

2. use the specialist skills of members of the Special Education Service appropriately;

3. use the Individual Education/Development Plan process, where appropriate;

4. contribute to government outcomes; and

5. support government policy in all settings.

To implement special education policy successfully, staff in regular education must be competent and confident in meeting special educational or developmental needs, including coordinating the work of ancillary staff. The Special Education Service will offer training courses which contribute to this aim.

Output. Services to learners with special educational needs and their schools: $24.8 million, and 344,000 hours.

Statement of Objectives.

1. To provide specialist therapies and direct intervention services to young people with special needs and their families

2. To provide advice, support, and guidance to parents, caregivers, and educators participating in decision-making, therapies, and direct intervention

3. To provide services cooperatively with other service providers to ensure effective use of resources and personnel

4. To establish and maintain links with the local and national health and welfare agencies in line with guidelines established as a result of government decisions

5. To develop skills, knowledge, and positive attitudes towards learners with special needs to support the provisions of the Education Act 1989 and other relevant legislation

6. To provide information and high quality advice to the Minister of Education and his [sic] agents on discretionary resources and other matters pertaining to learners with special educational needs. The Special Education Service has the sole responsibility for advising the Secretary of Education on the placement of individual students in special education facilities.

7. Schools will receive services on request to support them in meeting their responsibilities to learners with special educational needs. Services will be provided in a way which enhances the school's ability to provide a systematic response to the individual needs of these learners.

Measure of Performance Achievement

1. 18,000 students between the ages of 6-21 years with identified special educational needs will receive coordinated programmes and direct involvement from Special Educational Service staff. Services will be provided to a 90% satisfaction level as determined by a valid sampling of at least 5% of parents/caregivers and education staff involved (266,500 hours).

2. Every school which requests specialist advice and services to support it in meeting its responsibilities to learners with special educational needs will have at least one request met (32,720 hours).

In addition to the agreement with the Ministry of Education, the SES is free to enter into other contracts with the Ministry itself, or with other bodies within New Zealand or overseas, provided such activities do not conflict or interfere with the delivery of outputs agreed with the Ministry. The SES has already entered into two such contracts with the Ministry, one for a national teacher's development programme on mainstreaming and another for the professional development of early childhood workers in the area of children with special needs.

STRUCTURE, GOVERNANCE, AND MANAGEMENT OF SES

A seven-person board oversees the performance of the services provided under these agreements and other contracts, as well as the general conduct of the SES. The Minister of Education appoints six of the board members, the seventh member being the General Manager of the SES. The board has overall governance responsibility for such matters as: the policies of the organization (working within parameters determined by the Minister and the Ministry of Education), personnel awards and agreements, the General Manager's contract and his/her performance agreement and reviews, finance (budget approval and monitoring financial management), the agreement with Ministry, and the approval of other major contracts. The management of the organization is delegated to the General Manager who, in turn, may delegate to other staff.

As of June 1992, the SES had a total staff of approximately 750 full-time equivalents, comprised of psychologists, speech and language therapists, visiting teachers, early intervention advisors and teachers, and hearing advisors, as well as managerial and administrative staff. The organization is divided into a national office and 18 areas, with a good deal of responsibility being devolved from the former to the latter.

CORPORATE PLAN

All government funded agencies and institutions in New Zealand are required to develop "corporate plans," which outline in some detail how an organization intends to achieve its overall goals. The SES's corporate plan includes its commitments in the following areas:

Statement of Belief. We believe that all children and young people have the right to participate fully in New Zealand society with a sense of dignity and pride.

Mission Statement. The Special Education Service: Making a difference for learners with special needs.

Guiding Principles. The SES's services are: (a) comprehensive, coordinated, accessible, equitable, and responsive; (b) provided as early as possible in a child's life; (c) culturally sensitive, consistent with Maori aspirations and processes, and committed to promoting participation and success by Maori; and (d) respectful of the diverse ethnic and cultural heritage of New Zealand people and New Zealand's role in the Pacific.

STANDARD SERVICES

In order to adapt to the new culture of "contestability," which is likely to be introduced in the near future (see below), the SES is developing the notion of "standard services." These will comprise consistent sets of interactions with its "customers"; will have definable starts and end points; take a similar amount of service delivery time each time they are provided; and consist of readily definable/observable sets of processes or procedures which will be marketed at fixed prices.

Examples of standard services include:

Specialist Guidance and Support. The SES assists the parent, teachers, or caregiver as an advisor or consultant. This may include academic assessment; programme advice; classroom management, assessment, advice, support, and monitoring; family assessment; and advice services for school placement and programming.

Direct Teaching and Therapies. The SES provides individual counseling, family therapy, teaching study skills and social skills, language development, therapy, advice, behavioral assessment, and help with behavioral change.

Home-School Liaison. An SES employee (usually a visiting teacher) links school staff and families to resolve difficulties.

SESAME

To enable the activities of the SES to be accurately monitored, and for standard services which are to be charged out to customers to be invoiced, the SES has recently introduced an integrated job costing and accounting procedure. This computer package, SESAME (Special Education Accounting and Management Environment), is designed to deal with the shift to a job-based contracting culture and is centered on a computer network linking the 18 areas with the national office.

NEW SPECIAL EDUCATION POLICIES

Few other sectors in education have been subjected to such a range of reviews over the past few years as has special education. After having undergone the major restructuring as a result of *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms, outlined earlier in this chapter, special education in New Zealand faces even more dramatic changes over the next two to three years resulting from the *Statement of Intent*, a policy framework prepared for Government by the Ministry of Education (1991).

One of the most important assumptions underlying this document was the view that special education provisions were too centralized and, as such, were out of line with the reformed education system, in particular the government's commitment to the self-managing school. The ideological context for this aspect of the reforms was clearly expressed in the Treasury's briefing paper on education to the incoming government in 1987 (Treasury, 1987). Although this document made only passing reference to special education, the principles which were presented were intended to apply to the total education sector. Of most relevance to the proposed reform of special education is a minimalist approach to state intervention in education, as exemplified in the following statement:

> The costs of specific state interventions in education may be reduced and the benefits increased by action at three levels. First, the purposes of state intervention should be clearly identified and intervention minimized to that which is clearly justifiable and cost effective ... At the second level, given state intervention, action should be taken to minimize the disruption of, and help recreate the contract between, the customer and the provider. Thus the Government should: avoid interposing itself between the customers and providers as far as possible; eschew disabling interventions and focus on enabling ones; increase flexibility in the supply of educational services ...; and reduce funding tied to major educational institutions and redirect funding to individuals, families, local groups and smaller scale institutions. At the this level, where government interposition between customer and provider is unavoidable, the Government should seek methods of management and accountability which will counter rather than reinforce problems arising from the role of Government (The Treasury, 1987, p. 293).

In order to reduce the perceived dominance of the national SES as a special education provider and, correspondingly, to give more decision-making and resources to schools, the government introduced the notion of making part of the SES functions "contestable." Contestability is an economic term which is used to describe an environment in which an organization maintains an efficient and needs-driven operation through being exposed to actual or potential competition. It is viewed as a means of preventing an organization from holding a monopolistic position and is designed to provide choice and competitively-priced services. In practice, contestability in special education would occur by funding those who want a service (i.e., schools), rather than the service provider (e.g., SES), with the former having the power to choose who they want to provide the service and the nature of that service.

To enable contestability to occur, the *Statement of Intent* envisaged two distinct, but overlapping, types of special education provision. Essentially, these types revolved around classifying children with special education needs into one of two categories: students who have some sort of learning or social difficulties and who require assistance to access quality education, and students with reliably identifiable physical, intellectual, and/or sensory disabilities. In terms of responsibilities for providing support for these two categories, two distinct patterns of special education provision were proposed.

At the school level, students with disabilities would continue to be located in special schools, attached units, or in regular classes. They would receive individually-targeted resources, allocated on the basis of individual education plans, from their special schools, attached units, or, in the case of those in regular classes, from resource centres which were to be established. It was recognized that no formula could reflect the uneven incidence of this group among educational facilities, and that the services required are so specialized that it would be unlikely that there would be any systematic provision other than through a nationally-coordinated state provision. The SES would therefore be funded to provide services for such students.

School-level provisions for students with learning or social difficulties were to undergo major changes. In keeping with the Treasury's views, as outlined above, and the government's philosophy of devolution, the *Statement of Intent* envisaged that schools would be given access to resources "to use as they feel most appropriate to meet needs." To free up resources, schools in 1993 were to have the option of withdrawing 50% of the SES funding for these students, increasing to 100% in 1994. This additional resourcing of schools would enable the appointment of "support teachers" who would be trained and released on a continuing basis to assist their colleagues. It was envisaged that the funding going to schools could be used flexibly, provided it met the needs of the target group of students (the grants were to be distributed according to a formula and targeted in ways to be determined by an implementation team). Within this context, support and advice to education providers would be contestable among the SES and other providers, including those from the private sector.

As a result of extensive consultations carried out by a Special Education Policy Implementation Team in the first half of 1992, the government decided to delay the commencement of contestability until the beginning of 1994. This delay resulted from the almost universal objection to the use of categories as a basis for contestability. Other problems with the model have been described in detail by Mitchell (1992). While the government's intention to introduce contestability for the SES has been reiterated, as has the intention to give more discretionary resources to schools, no clear model of service delivery has yet emerged.

CONCLUSION: The delivery of special education services in New Zealand has undergone major changes since October 1989. Schools now have a greater obligation to accept and provide appropriate programmes for all learners, an obligation which is specified in the Education Act (1989) and which should find expression in school charters. To assist schools in discharging their responsibilities to learners with difficulties in learning and development, a newly-constituted independent Crown Agency, the Special Education Service, has been set up. The functions and operation of this organization have changed considerably from the previous system. Chief among the changes are the bringing into the one organization a range of professionals working with children with special needs, and the introduction of a more accountable service delivery system for special education. Further changes in the near future will see an even greater consolidation of responsibility for special education into the SES. Responsibility for allocating resources for the education of learners with special educational and developmental needs will be divested from the Ministry of Education to the SES, a change which will be accompanied by a yet-to-be-determined procedure for the SES to make its service delivery contestable.

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DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

by Seung-Kook Kim

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Educational provision for the handicapped in Korea was started by King Sei-Jong in the middle of the 15th century. Before that time, no systematic attempt was taken to educate the handicapped, although they do seem to have been accepted and cared for by society. Between the 16th century and the end of the 19th century, such provision was provided by individuals (Lim, 1986), but during the period from 1894 to 1944, the foundations of modern special educational provisions were laid with the development of group homes and residential facilities.

A legal basis for the provision of special education for individuals with special needs was not provided until the passing of the Education Law of 1949. Since then, special education has grown rapidly as a result of strong socio-political forces and the efforts of individuals and advocacy groups to influence development. After 1949, seven categories of handicap were identified to provide the basis of special education: the visually handicapped; the hearing impaired; the mentally retarded; the physically handicapped; the emotionally disturbed; the language disordered; and other handicapped. Special schools and special classes were then established. The first special school was opened in 1945, but the first special class was not organised until 1962.

In passing, it is perhaps important to note that the decision in 1976 by the United Nations General Assembly to proclaim 1981 as "The International Year of Disabled Persons" (IYDP), with the theme of full participation, equality, and the dignity of disabled persons, was particularly influential in fostering change. Since 1976, the Law for the Promotion of the Special Education and the Law for the Welfare of the Handicapped People have further helped to secure the fundamental human rights of people with special needs. Also influential was the fact that in 1988, the Paralympics Games were held in Seoul with the basic theme of "Challenge and Overcoming, Peace and Friendship, Participation and Equality." On September 15, one month before the Games were held, President Tae-Woo Roh organised the President's Committee on Welfare for Disabled Persons under a Presidential Decree to provide a comprehensive welfare policy for disabled persons. This Committee subsequently presented a report, which set the tone for policy decisions for the next decade.

CURRENT PROVISIONS

Estimates of the prevalence of individuals with special needs in Korea suggest that these constitute 7.19 per cent of the school-age population, broken down as follows: visually handicapped, 0.14 per cent; hearing impaired, 0.24 per cent; mentally retarded, 2.27 per cent; physically handicapped, 0.91 per cent; emotionally disturbed, 2.16 per cent; language disordered, 0.50 per cent; learning disabled, 0.97 (Kim, 1991, p. 18). Of these groups, about 78 per cent are considered to be mildly handicapped and about 22 per cent severely handicapped. Most of the mildly handicapped are enrolled in regular classes, while about 35 per cent of the severely handicapped are educated in special schools and special classes (Kim, 1985).

In 1979, free education was initiated for pupils enrolled in special schools and special classes. Not only public special schools, but also private special schools were supported by government public funds with the implementation of the Law for the Promotion of Special Education of 1977.

The growth of special educational provision from 1945 to the present is summarised in Table 1, where it can be seen that there are now 103 special schools (these cater for the blind, the deaf, the mentally retarded, the physically handicapped, and the emotionally disturbed) and 3,280 special classes (these cater for the mentally retarded, the partially sighted, and the hard of hearing).

Table 1. The Growth of Special Schools and Classes
Source: (Korean Association of Special Education Teachers, 1992)

	1945	1962	1971	1976	1981	1986	1991	1992
Special Schools	1	10	42	58	60	90	101	103
Special Classes	1	1	350	414	2361	3248	3280	

However, the historical development and pattern of provision for the different groups of handicapped children are not identical and some of these differences are outlined on the next page.

EDUCATION FOR THE VISUALLY HANDICAPPED

Education for the blind can be said to have started in 1445, but this involved training the blind as fortune-tellers. Modern education for the blind was started by an American missionary, Rossetta S. Hall, in 1894. She started a group home for blind girls, but also took them to the regular school so that they might receive education. Also she developed a Korean point system based upon the New York point system, and this was used until the Korean Braille system was developed in 1926.

The first special school for the blind (Seoul National School for the Blind and the Deaf) was opened in 1945. There are now 13 schools for the blind, and the number of students who are being educated in these schools amounts to 1,030. The first special class for the partially sighted was organised within regular elementary schools in 1969. There are now nine classes in three schools (one elementary school, one middle school,

and one high school).

A special school curriculum for the blind was first developed in 1967, based on that provided in regular schools. The elementary and secondary school curriculum consists of academic subjects, life-adjustment activities, and extracurricular activities. The life-adjustment activities consist of life skills and locomotion skills, while at high school level, a vocational training program is provided in addition to these activities. Programs also include Oriental massage and acupuncture.

Among those blind students who graduate from high school, present figures show that 78.31 per cent are successful in getting a job in the area for which they have been trained, and the salary received by these students is the same as that of the sighted (Kim et al, 1985).

EDUCATION FOR THE HEARING IMPAIRED

Education for the hearing impaired, like that for the blind, was started by Rossetta Hall in 1909, but the first special school for the deaf (Seoul National School for the Blind and the Deaf) was not opened until 1945. There are now 26 schools for the deaf, and the number of students who are being educated in these schools amounts to 3,881. The first special class for the hard-of-hearing was organised within regular elementary schools in 1987. There are now three such classes, all in one school.

The first special school curriculum for the deaf was constructed in 1967 based on that of the regular school. A kindergarten curriculum includes physical development, language development, cognitive development, emotional development, social development, and therapeutic activities. The elementary and secondary school curriculum consists of academic subjects, therapeutic activities, and extracurricular activities. The therapeutic activities consist of speech reading training, and training in signed Korean. However, some of the schools use only an auditory/oral approach, while other use total communication. In high schools, a vocational training program which includes activities such as wood-working, industrial arts, shoe-making, dress-making, hand embroidery, and hand knitting is provided in addition to these activities.

Among those deaf students who graduate from high school, available data show that 89.63 per cent gain employment mostly in jobs for which they have been trained, but the salary received by them is often less than that of the hearing (Kim et al, 1985).

EDUCATION FOR THE MENTALLY RETARDED

Educational provision for the mentally retarded was established as a national facility in 1949, but the first special school for them was not opened until 1967. There are now 60 such schools which cater for 13,066 students. The first special class for the mentally retarded was organised within the regular elementary school in 1962 and the regular middle school in 1984. There are now 2,600 classes in elementary schools and 668 classes in middle schools. The total number of students who are educated in these classes amounts to 28,111.

The first national special school curriculum for the mentally retarded was constructed in 1974 and revised in 1989. At kindergarten level, the curriculum consists of physical development, language development, cognitive development, emotional development, social development, and therapeutic activities. The elementary school curriculum consists of life activities, therapeutic activities, and extracurricular activities. The life activities are divided into five areas: social life, language, cognition, health, and music/arts. The therapeutic activities are divided into sensory-motor training, language training, and adaptive behaviour training. The middle and high school curriculum also consists of life activities, therapeutic activities, and extracurricular activities, but the life activities are divided into the seven areas of social life, language, math, natural science, health, music/arts, and pre-vocational activities (in the case of middle school, occupational activities), while the therapeutic activities consist of the same activities as those of the elementary school. Vocational training programs are also provided in these schools in areas such as wood-working, pottery, wood-craft, knitting, and cultivating.

Among the graduates, about 60 per cent are unemployed, and most who are employed work in jobs such as factory worker, shop assistant, and agricultural labourer - jobs for which they have not trained (Kim et al, 1985).

EDUCATION FOR THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

Education for the physically handicapped was started by another American missionary, Edward Adams, in 1959 but the first special school for them was opened at a hospital in 1964. There are now 20 schools, and the number of students who are being educated in these schools amounts to 2,515.

The first special school curriculum for the physically handicapped was developed in 1983, based on that of the regular school. The kindergarten curriculum consists of physical development, cognitive development, emotional development, social development, and rehabilitative activities. The elementary and secondary curriculum, consists of academic subjects, rehabilitative activities, and extracurricular activities. The rehabilitative activities are divided into six areas: sensory-perceptual training, speech training, occupational training, physical training, physical activity training, and psycho-social training. Schools for the physically handicapped also provide their students with vocational training mainly in areas such as embroidery, electronics, knitting, dress-making, and wood-working.

Among the graduates of these special schools, the most recent figures show 53.38 per cent go on to other education (including higher education), 20.68 per cent get employment, and 25.85 per cent are unemployed. Most of the employed graduates work in jobs for which they were not trained (Kim et al, 1985).

OTHER SPECIAL PROGRAMS

In addition to the programs mentioned above, there are several kinds of other special educational provisions.

For the emotionally disturbed, school counselling and special schools are available. School counsellors have been employed in all the regular secondary schools since 1957, and the first special school was opened in 1982. The number of these special schools is 2, and the number of students in those schools is 258. There is also a large number of private clinics which deal with pre-school children who have emotional disturbance, mental retardation, hearing impairment, or speech disorder, and there are welfare facilities, group homes, and sheltered workshops which provide for the handicapped.

TEACHER TRAINING

The training of special education teachers commenced in 1950, when a three-year teacher training course was established in the Seoul National School for the Blind and the Deaf, which was followed in 1954 by a one-year teacher training course in the same school. In 1964, the Teacher Certification Act made it possible for certification of special education teachers and, in 1971, Dankook University and Ewha Women's University established departments of special education for training special education teachers. There are now seven such departments of special education in Korea.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

1. Policy Issues

The Comprehensive Welfare Policy for Disabled Persons, provided by the President's Committee which was referred to above, was based on the needs, comments, and opinions of about 4,000 people: people with handicaps, the parents of the handicapped, professionals working in the

field, and government officials. The report was presented to President Roh in 1989 and, after that, to the Sub-Committee of Health and Social Affairs, National Assembly. The report was accepted by them as providing a desirable model for future development. The report can be divided into 77 sections: 24 budgetary projects and 53 non-budgetary projects which are to be implemented through the amendment or enactment of laws, administrative instructions, etc.

On 30th December 1989, about four months after the report was presented to the President, the Law for the Welfare of the Handicapped People was amended. This amendment implemented most of the recommendations found in the report, except those related to the development of educational opportunities and compulsory employment, but on 13th January 1990, the Handicapped People's Employment Promotion Law was enacted. This law stipulated that the employment rate of the handicapped shall be more than 2 per cent of total employees in public agencies and 1 to 5 per cent of total employees in private businesses which have 300 or more employees. It also created public employment promotion centres for the handicapped.

There are also currently attempts to amend the Law for the Promotion of the Special Education of 1977, and it seems likely that the law will be amended in 1993. It is hoped that most of the educational recommendations suggested by the President's Committee will be incorporated into this amendment.

On 13 July 1991, the Economic Planning Board estimated that Korea's per capita income will rise from $6,316 in that year to $10,908 in 1996, and that Korea will become a net creditor nation in 1995. An economic growth rate of 7.5 per cent is expected to continue beyond that date. The implementation of the above laws, combined with the economic growth, should make it possible for the understanding of people with special needs to be enhanced and for the provision of welfare services to be extended. Hopefully, people with special needs, who have previously been deprived of the opportunity of special education because of parents' prejudice, low-income status, lack of motivation, or lack of acceptance as true members of society, will receive special education suited to their needs.

2. Planning for Change

After the Comprehensive Welfare Policy for Disabled Persons was presented by the President's Committee, the Ministry of Education prepared a plan to organise a Department with responsibility for special education within the Ministry of Education. Each Board of Education started a process of placing a teacher-consultant who is responsible for special education in each district office of education. In this way it is hoped that the system will be strengthened, and the planning and administration of special education will be facilitated.

The Ministry of Education is also considering a plan to extend the provision of special education to cater for 200,000 or more people with special needs by 1996, and has started to support the cost of extending or reconstructing private special schools. The Ministry of Education is also considering a plan to increase the number of facilities for the early education of special needs children. With continued economic growth, early education for the special needs children will be facilitated; compulsory education will be extended to include high school attendance; and special classes will be organised not only within the regular elementary and middle schools but also within high schools. In addition, it can be expected that more individuals with severe handicaps, who have not received the appropriate educational services previously, will be presented with new educational opportunities as a result of the increased number of special schools and classes.

3. Vocational Training and Employment

With the implementation of the Handicapped People's Employment Promotion Law, a "Public Employment Promotion Center for the Handicapped" was established and, in the near future, several vocational training centres, formed as a post-secondary education program, will be established. One of the centres has been constructed, and special school curricula will be revised to meet the employers' needs; vocational training courses will be changed; job skill training and employment-related social skill training will be strengthened.

A particularly important development for the future development of special education in Korea is the creation of a National Institute of Special Education. This is currently under construction and will be opened in 1993. Research and development, as well as in-service and professional development courses, will be carried out by this body to promote the quality of special education provision and training.

"Special Education" was also designated as a required subject in the curriculum of Colleges of Education in 1991, which should mean that future generations of teachers will be better equipped to meet the needs of all of their pupils. In turn, students with special educational needs who are enrolled in regular classes will be more likely to receive support suited to their needs from regular school teachers than has previously been the case.

On a more practical level, each Board of Education has started to provide school buses, and to support free luncheon services to special schools. In this way, the economic burden of the students who enter special schools will be reduced, and those special needs students who have not entered special school previously due to poverty will be present in greater numbers.

CONCLUSION

It is impossible to predict the future development of special education in Korea with any accuracy. However, the future seems likely to involve a process of "education for social integration" including vocational education. If the goal of education for social integration can be achieved, a better society will be created in which the strong will respect the weak, the rich will respect the poor, and the perfect will respect the imperfect. Korea is moving toward a welfare society in which all citizens shall be assured of human worth and dignity, and have the right to pursue happiness. In this context, it might be hoped that the goal of education for social integration will be achieved.

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ATTITUDES OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE STUDENTS TOWARD PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES IN THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

by Yong G. Hwang and Carmen J. Iannaccone

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INTRODUCTION

Special education in the Republic of Korea has gained momentum with the rapid economic development of the country since the 1970s (Kang & Masodi, 1977; Lee, 1987). However, a great number of exceptional children and youth remains neglected by the Korean society in general. The dreadful fact is that 65% of school-age children with handicapping conditions or disabilities are not receiving any kind of educational services ("Too many handicapped ...," 1989). This lack of services, in large measure, is reflective of a diminished concern for persons with disabilities by Korean government and society. After all, the quality and quantity of services provided for people with special needs are indeed indicators of the values and attitudes of society towards persons with disabilities (Bowe, 1978). Unless the attitudes of Korean society become more favorable toward individuals with special needs, it is highly unlikely that attempts to expand and improve special education programs and services will be forthcoming.

Gaining insight into the attitudes of Korea's future citizens and leaders would likely influence the formulation of appropriate strategies for promoting a more favorable education policy and service provision for individuals with disabilities in the Republic of Korea. Indeed, current high school and college students will likely govern the nation in the years ahead. Their attitudes will, no doubt, exert profound influence on future legislation and public policy concerning persons with disability. They will also serve as models within Korean society, positioned to promote and strengthen favorable attitudes across the general public toward persons with disabilities.

It would seem essential that social and educational policy-makers, curriculum planners, and service providers at the national and local level have an informed understanding of the attitudes of Korean high school and college students toward persons with disabilities. The purpose of this study was to investigate these attitudes.

METHOD

A randomly selected sample of 240 college students attending the University of Seoul and 240 high school students attending a private high school in Seoul was utilized in this study. The university sampling consisted of two class levels of undergraduate students (120 freshmen and 120 seniors). The chronological age range of university subjects was 17 to 29, with a mean age of 22.7. Educational grade levels of the high school subjects were first year and third year (120 first and 120 third). The chronological age range of the high school sampling was 14 to 20, with a mean age of 16.6. Finally, equivalent numbers of female and male subjects are represented across both college and high school levels (see Table 1). Each subject was required to complete a survey anonymously as a class assignment within each respective class setting, and return the survey to the instructors at the conclusion of the class session. A total of 478 surveys was returned. Three returned surveys were eliminated due to irregularities in the demographic data sheets and/or excessive omitted responses. The instrument used in this study was the Scale of Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (SADP), which was developed by Richard Antonak (1988) as a means of eliciting the attitudes of the general population toward persons with disabilities. It was necessary to translate the Likert-type items included in the SADP into the Korean language prior to its administration. A pilot study was undertaken utilizing the Korean translation of the SADP. Analysis of the results yielded a correlation coefficient of .78. Data analysis techniques otherwise employed in this study were descriptive.

Table 1
Subjects by Educational Level and Gender

Educational Level	Year	Male Subjects	Female Subjects	Total Number of Subjects
College	1	60	58	118
	4	60	59	119
High School	1	58	60	118
	3	60	60	120
TOTALS		238	237	475

RESULTS

Korean high school and college students as a combined group possessed strongly positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities. In effect, 417 of 475 Korean high school and college students (87.6%) projected positive attitudes. The range of scores for combined college and high school subjects was 58.00 to 132.00. College student attitudes, when compared with those of high school students, were more favorable. The mean score for college students was 101.53, with a standard deviation of 10.30, while the mean score for high school students was 96.91, with a standard deviation of 9.97 (see Table 2). It should be noted that a raw score of 72 served as the cut-off point between negative and positive attitudes toward individuals with disabilities; that is, scores under 72 reflected negative attitudes on the part of respondents, where as scores above 72 reflected positive attitudes.

Table 2
College and High School Student Scores on SADP

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	MEAN DIFFERENCE
College (N = 237)	101.53	10.30	
High School (N = 238)	96.91	9.97	4.62
TOTAL N = 475			

Table 3 illustrates the responses of both college and high school students to each item of the SADP. It should be noted that 12 items of the SADP were worded negatively. For those items (shown with "*"), a negative group mean signifies a positive attitude, while a positive group mean signifies a negative attitude toward persons with disabilities. Responses to the 24 items of the SADP are also ranked according to the respondents' most positive attitude mean scores to most negative attitude mean scores (see Table 3). A sizable number of respondents reflected negative attitudes in items 6, 7, 8, and 18, suggesting that Korean high school and college students still held stereotypic conceptions about the maturity of persons with disabilities and the benefits of long-term investment in rehabilitation programs for persons with disabilities. Nonetheless, respondents projected positive attitudes on 83.4% of the SADP items, thus expressing their belief that persons with disabilities have the same basic human rights as others in Korean society. Hence, a person with special needs is viewed to be entitled to treatment that is dignified and respectful in every aspect of life.

SADP Items	Rank	% Agree	% Disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation
*1. Disabled children should not be provided with free public education.	(6)	10.5	89.5	-1.96	1.25
2. Disabled people are not more accident prone than other people.	(16)	70.4	29.6	1.37	1.57
*3. A disabled individual is not capable of making moral decisions.	(3)	5.7	94.3	-1.38	.94
*4. Disabled people should be prevented from having kids.	(9)	13.7	86.3	-2.01	1.26
5. Disabled people should be allowed to live where and how they choose.	(19)	60.3	39.7	.98	1.23
6. Adequate housing for disabled people is neither too expensive nor too difficult to build.	(24)	34.8	65.2	-.87	1.52
*7. Rehabilitation programs for disabled people are too expensive to operate.	(23)	51.4	48.6	.42	1 64
*8. Disabled people are in many ways like children.	(21)	56.7	43.3	.74	1.49
*9. Disabled people need only the proper environ ment an express criminal tendencies.	(12)	21.4	78.6	-1.68	1.55
*10. Disabled adults should be involuntarily commit ted to an institution.	(7)	10.9	89.1	-1.85	1.21
11. Most disabled peopleare willing to work.	(1)	95.2	4.8	2.04	1.39
12. Disabled individuals are able to adjust to a life outside an institutional setting.	(5)	90.5	9.5	1.75	.93
13. Disabled individuals are able to adjust to a life outside an institutional setting.	(20)	57.6	42.4	.63	.71
*14. Disabled people should live with others of similar disability.	(13)	23.4	76.6	-1.16	1.51
15. Zoning ordinances should not discriminate against disabledpeople by prohibiting group homes in residential districts. individual is not capable of making moral decisions.	(14)	74.7	25.3	1.59	1.33
16. The opportunity for gainful employment should be provided to disabled people.	(2)	95.1	4.9	2.37	1.16
*17. Disabled children in regular classrooms have an adverse effect on other children.	(17)	29.9	70.1	-1.17	1.37
*18. Simple repetitive work is appropriate for disabled people.	(22)	51.8	48.2	.54	1.07
*19. Disabled people show a deviant personality profile.	(18)	35.1	64.9	-.72	1.15
20. Equal employment opportunities should be available to disabled individuals.	(11)	81.4	19.6	1.78	1.36
21. Laws to prevent employers from discriminating against disabled people should be passed.	(15)	71.7	28.3	.91	1.76
*22. Disabled people engage in bizzare and deviant sexual activity.	(10)	17.3	82.7	-1.35	1.57
23. Disabled workers should receive at least the minimum wage established for their jobs.	(4)	94.2	5.8	1.83	1.03
24. Disabled individuals can be expected to fit into competitive society.	(8)	87.7	12.3	1.40	.80

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DISCUSSION

While the vast majority of study subjects expressed strongly positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities, this may be interpreted as a paradoxical reflection of current Korean special education. Despite the positive attitudes of the study subjects, and the rapid economic development of the nation in recent years, only a small portion of children with special needs is being served by the Korean educational system. This paucity of services clearly implies indifference to persons with disabilities on the part of the Korean government.

Swift development of the nation's economy has been the motto of every Korean cabinet since the liberation of the nation from Japanese colonial rule in 1945. During the past 40 years, persons with disabilities and their educational needs have been allocated an extremely low priority in receiving financial assistance from the Korean government (Lee, 1987).

The favorable attitudes expressed by respondents in the present study may indeed be a reflection of a long-existing tradition of Korean society. Under the strong influence of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism, and their teachings of human morality, attempts to protect people with disabilities have been encouraged since the early times of Korean culture. "Sam Guk Sa Ki" (the history of three kingdoms of Korea), one of the oldest historical documents in Korean history, described the third year of King Yuri's reign of the Sinla Dynasty (A.D. 23). It is reported that the king ordered his government officials to furnish and protect people with disabilities (Kim, 1976, p. 11).

On the other hand, the more favorable attitudes expressed by college students, when compared with those of the high school students, may also be explained through the findings of several studies (Furnham & Gibbs, 1984; Ladd, Munson & Miller, 1984; Rounds & Neubauer, 1986). It was reported that individuals having more extensive contact with persons with disabilities were more likely to demonstrate favorable attitudes toward persons with special needs. It would appear that, as subjects in this study advance in chronological age and educational level, they had increased opportunity to interact with individuals with handicapping conditions. In this study, the college students' more frequent exposure to persons with disabilities appears to have contributed to their acquisition and expression of more favorable attitudes than those of high school students. As asserted by Horne (1985), the greater the degree of contact with persons with handicapping conditions, the lower the expected amount of prejudice toward them.

The findings of this study suggest the need for greater support from the Korean government to identify citizens with disabilities, and to make a more vigorous commitment to provide appropriate educational and rehabilitation services for these individuals. Accordingly, deliberate expansion of public services for individuals with special needs in countries such as Korea, which traditionally have been allocating only limited resources for the education of its citizens including those with special needs (UNICEF, 1992), may be encouraged by inducing the government to give careful attention to the trends of public attitudes and opinion toward members of Korean society who are disabled.

In conclusion, the future of Korean special education appears promising. Respondents in this study, who are representative of Korea's next generation, with the exception of several stereotypic conceptions, expressed favorable attitudes toward people with disabilities. Public policy and the actions of Korean society will likely reflect the attitudes of future leaders of the Republic of Korea. It is imperative that these individuals, and others who share their attitudes, serve as socio-political advocates for persons with disabilities. It will be their legacy to improve upon the legislative provision and government and corporate funding to promote education and service for all persons with disabilities in the Korea of tomorrow.

In addition, it is essential that current Korean educational leadership acknowledges the importance of developing and implementing curricula that will further the development of positive attitudes and understanding of all Korean students toward persons with special needs, as well as engage them in the formulation of constructive community action strategies on behalf of individuals who are disabled.

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INTERVIEWS WITH MOTHERS OF SEVERELY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN: SCHOOL LEAVERS IN JAPAN

by Louise Fulton and Virginia Dixon

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Special Education Through the Eyes of Parents in Japan

Parents play a significant role in the education of their children the world over. It is the parents who initiate the educational process with their young children and, in the case of a child with a significant handicap, it is the parents who continue the process long beyond the school years.

When the child has a severe handicap, parental involvement can be very intense throughout the child's school years and beyond, depending in part on cultural expectations. For example, P.L. 94-142 specifies that parents in the United States must take an active part in their handicapped child's education, including participation in education planning. This parental involvement begins at the time of the initial identification of an educationally significant handicap and continues for as long as the child receives special education services. In contrast, in Japan, the child's mother has little influence over the content of the educational program for her child, whether handicapped or not. Yet the child's mother is expected to be supportive of the school program and even accompany the child to school for as many years as needed and to remain available for helping the teacher when needed.

Once school is completed, little is known about the hopes and dreams of these parents; often, no one fully benefits from their many years of experience. These parents, who have been intensely involved in the school program and even have assisted in the identification and implementation of educational plans, have gained valuable information. They have watched and taken part in the successes and failures and they have much to share. These parents have become experts on the topic of "what really made a difference," yet their wisdom is seldom tapped.

The Need for Post-School Follow-Up

Education is guilty of the ostrich syndrome in neglecting to utilize parent input as a school effectiveness measure and a valuable source of information for school improvement. In addition, school populations are becoming increasingly more diverse. Interviews with parents of former students not only reveal information about school effectiveness but, when the interview is conducted in the home, these contacts provide an opportunity to learn more about the child's culture.

Post-school follow-up interviews as a means to examine the outcomes of school is not a new idea. Such studies have been reported in the literature (Matthews, 1919). In a review of the literature on post-school follow-up, Burton, Faigin, Towner and Wojciehowski (1988) identified over 100 studies reporting the post-school work, living, and achievement status of a wide range of populations. Several studies reported results of parent interviews; however, almost no studies reported the results of parent interviews conducted in the home. Cultural considerations were not emphasized in any of the follow-up studies. Given the rich ethnic diversity of schools in the United States, it is important to prioritize cultural implications when conducting post-school status studies. Concerns, opinions, and expectations identified among parents from diverse cultural backgrounds can provide valuable information for enriching and improving services for all exceptional children.

The purpose of this paper is to report the results of a series of intense post-school follow-up interviews conducted in southern Japan during the 1989-90 academic year. The families of twelve adults who had been labeled severely or profoundly handicapped when they were in school were interviewed by a Southern California university professor and a district school administrator. Both interviewers specialize in education of children or youth with handicaps and both participated in all twelve interviews. The interviews were conducted at ten homes and two special centers in southern Japan. While these twelve interviews cannot provide significant data for conclusive implications, the findings and experiences of the authors do reveal relevant information for consideration in cross-cultural educational interventions.

Recognizing and Responding to the Japanese Culture

The California Follow-Up Data Form (Burton, Peterson, Towner & Wojciehowski, 1988) was used to structure the content of the interviews. The faculty of Tohoku University Special Education translated the follow-up data form under the direction of Dr. Masaki Nagafuchi. Interviews were arranged through coordination of Dr. Susumu Harizuka of Kyushu University, Dr. Kenji Hachisuka of the University of Occupational and Environmental Health in Kitakyushu, and Dr. Tsurukichi Takamatsu of the Kitakyushu Center for the Disabled. Two young Japanese mothers with degrees in linguistics interpreted the interviews: Ayako Hachisuka and Eiko Harizuka. This group of professionals and parents served as project advisors and were invaluable to its success.

Several potential linguistic and cultural barriers were identified and overcome or diminished before beginning the interviews. The Japanese home is considered to be a sacred and private place; thus, it is not customary to entertain guests in the home. Homes in Japan are small, tidy, and efficient, and the common perception among Japanese women is that Americans have huge luxurious houses. As this was the case, the Japanese mothers initially were reluctant to invite American visitors into their homes. Also, most people in Japan have had little or no experience with an English-speaking person, even though they may have studied English ten or more years in school.

In addition, people in Japan were found to be particularly proud and private about their lives, customarily handling their own problems quietly and effectively within the family. In a nation where high achievement and service is expected, a handicapped child brings an element of shame to the family and is a curiosity to the community. The natural response is to keep the situation at a low profile. It was clear from the beginning that conducting these interviews would require careful establishment of a highly respectful and trusting atmosphere.

Finally, education is held in high esteem in Japan. It would be considered strange and uncomfortable to question the decisions of the teacher or to make other than praiseworthy comments about the school. Yet, here in Japan were two foreign educators asking parents to invite them into their homes for the purpose of discussing the prior education of their handicapped child. They would be asked to talk about the usefulness of the former school program in preparing their child for adult life and to share their concerns for the future. It was indeed a challenging undertaking.

Establishing Interviews in Japan

The first step in the research process was to translate and field test the California Follow-Up Questionnaire. Upon advisement of the Japan Advisory Group, two questions that could not be conveyed to the Japanese families were revised and two additional questions were added. The Japanese version of the California Follow-Up Questionnaire was then field-tested with parents in Sendai, Japan.

Next, families in the Kitakyushu Prefecture of Japan who would participate in the southern Japan study were identified. Research consultants Drs. Takamatsu and Harizuka compiled a random sample of

school completers from two special centers and secured their agreement to participate. The two Japanese interpreters then contacted these parents and scheduled the interviews over a two-week period in late fall of the 1989-90 academic year.

A process for conducting the interviews was then finalized. During field testing at Tohoku University, Dr. Nagafuchi had accompanied one of the researchers and interpreted the questions and responses. A negative halo effect was detected when interpretation was provided by the famous doctor. The researchers recognized that, in order to overcome this potential barrier and establish the optimal interview atmosphere, interviews should be as informal as possible. Also, it was recognized that common experiences between the interpreter and the parents would further enhance the comfort level of the mothers and help create an atmosphere conducive to self-disclosure.

The two Japanese women selected as interpreters for the twelve interviews were competent, warm, and well-educated, yet they were not practicing professionals. In addition, the interpreters were encouraged to bring one of their small children with them to the interviews. A young child's presence would serve as a transitionary tension breaker and provide the interviewers with another opportunity to observe informally familial interactions in Japan.

The Interviews Begin

We were accompanied by the interpreter and her two-and-a-half-year-old son, Fumio. Fumio served as an international goodwill ambassador, at times carrying on with antics to break the ice for the interviewers and momentarily divert attention away from the interviewee. His presence helped us bond quickly and gave the Japanese and American women a common experience to share. Over time, Fumio came to know the American interviewers well and was comfortable with his team. He offered an internationally understood "something else" which helped create the informal and open atmosphere we were seeking.

On entering the home, we removed our shoes, with none of the grace of our Japanese interpreter. Our Japanese hostess shyly pointed to pairs of blue vinyl slippers we were to wear. A small gift was presented to the mother, who bowed and finally accepted in polite humility. As we entered the living area, we were introduced to the grandmother and the former special education student. Facial expressions are critically important, as we must rely on visual clues and simple phrases to establish this important relationship. When we stood, we towered over this petite mother in her late forties and well-preserved grandmother of seventy. When we sat on straw mats, we curled long legs under short tables. The mother recognized our potential discomfort. We responded "Dai jobi" to express "I'm OK."

In each interview, we presented our "meishi" (business card). In this culture, the presentation of a meishi is not only an imperative business etiquette, it also opens the scene for formal interaction between people. Typically, meishi are exchanged among business and professional men who accept the card with a bow or nod and study it carefully before speaking. The mothers accepted our cards with delight and eagerness. The meishi evidences respect to the women, as well as serves as a starting point of conversation for the interpreter. The beginning of a trusting and open atmosphere for upcoming dialogue about various personal experiences was created in these first few moments.

We sipped the carefully brewed tea in respectful silence, studying the lovely cup and tea leaves. Light conversation between the mother and the interpreter continued as we offered occasional nods and smiles. Fumio provided a welcome distraction to our uncomfortable silences. When the tea was finished, our interpreter began by explaining the purpose and procedures for the interview. As the interpreter struggled with English phrases and turned to us for help, the mother and grandmother looked at her with admiration. The atmosphere gradually became comfortable and relaxed and there was evidence of a necessary rapport required for a successful personal interview (Gay, 1987). A mixture of discomfort, interest, and compassion was shared by all, yet the potential value in the experience served as a great motivator to continue. Fumio needed another fish cake, everyone relaxed and attended to his needs.

Responses to the Interview Questions

The interviews inquired about governmental support for those who do not work. Parents confirmed that special funds are allocated by the Minister of Welfare, usually 50-60,000 yen, or $405-480, monthly. The amount depends on the age of the child, the governmental ranking of the handicap severity, and family need. Other financial support to families depends on the philosophy and commitments of local governments across the nation, and varies from free transportation and admission to local parks to assistance in establishing parent-operated workshops.

The twelve former students were 18-24 years old and all had completed or left school within the past four years. Each had been labeled as severely and/or "doubly" handicapped when they were in school. In eleven of the twelve cases, the mother responded to the interview questions; one interview included the father's responses. For most of the interviews, the former student was present. All former students had attended special schools, having experienced no integrative school activities.

Two former students were minimally employed at a special workshop which was owned and managed by parents of adults with handicaps. One young man with intense physical disabilities and apparent strong intellectual abilities expressed a desire to work and talked about learning computer skills from his older brother. None of these young adults had experienced vocational training in school. One former student had received minimal instruction in typing in school and another had been "introduced" to a calculator.

Questions regarding the past school life revealed that arts and crafts comprised the school training in recreation/leisure skills. Domestic skills were similar, although one former student did report that twice a year he practiced washing and cooking rice at school. Six of the twelve parents felt domestic training would have been useful and two mentioned that the teacher worked with their child on self-feeding skills. For the most part, domestic training, including toilet training, was considered a mother's responsibility, and most of the mothers had fed and toileted their son or daughter daily at school for many years.

In response to a question about the use of free time, twelve of the former students enjoyed television and music. One parent spoke of walks as a favorite free time activity of her son. All leisure time activities were family and home-oriented, and none of the former students spoke of spending time with a friend or non-paid companion.

The last section of the interview was devoted to questions about general feelings of life satisfaction and present and future concerns. On a 1 (very happy) to 5 (not happy at all) scale, seven parents rated their children as 2 (fairly happy), one as 1 (very happy), and the other five fell in the 3 (happy now and then) and 4 (not very happy) categories. When asked about present concerns or problems, former students or parents shared specific examples of need such as "an adaptor for the computer"; "to position myself so I can study"; "to overcome transportation barriers in the community"; "to be comfortable or free from pain"; and "not to be depressed or bored." The most consistent and overwhelming concerns expressed by the parents were around issues of public acceptance of their child's handicap.

What About the Future ...

One of the most moving aspects of the interviews came with the last question: "In terms of the future, what are the most important things that you think about?" Responses were: "What will happen to my child when I am gone?"; "What kind of care will he really be given?"; "How can I make such hard choices about the future when she needs me so much?"; "What can I do when grandmother is gone?"; and, "Often I think about this and worry every day." For the interviewers, this was the question that consistently brought tears - uncomfortable tears. Frequently, an hour was spent in deep conversation about the child and future circumstances and opportunities.

When discussing the future, most of the mothers spoke with

resignation about their child eventually living in one of the large governmental colonies. One mother responded, "That's why he's living at the colony part-time now, so he can get accustomed before he goes there full-time." She reported that she cried when she left her son at the colony for the first time.

Another mother responded that her daughter is presently living at home, but she thinks that in four or five years she will need to live at the colony. She is an only child and has no one else to take care of her in the future. This mother also noted that she doesn't feel it is fair to expect a sibling to do the caretaking and knowingly shared that caring for her daughter is a full-time responsibility.

Several mothers spoke sadly of the fact that people stare at their child when they go out in the community. "Even after all of these years, it still hurts." They consistently expressed worries about how people might treat their child if they were not present to protect their needs and feelings.

When questioned about the future, one mother responded that her son currently comes home from the colony for one week each month but, when she can no longer physically lift or position him, she knows his life will have to revolve around life in the colony. She is looking ahead and has asked his younger brother and sister to promise to visit him at least four times a year, hoping they will be able to go more often. In response to the same question, another mother said that she will care for her son as long as she is physically able and, at the same time, she knows that it's important to start thinking about the future. She is considering entering her son in a colony in the future and worries about space availability. According to this mother, some colonies are already impacted with long waiting lists.

One mother spoke of specific plans to have her son living in the colony of handicapped persons by the time he is 30. With tears in her eyes, she explained that this will be difficult. To help preapre her son for the future, she has begun to invite handicapped people into her home so he will be more prepared for an adult handicapped environment. This same mother also expressed concern that her son's functioning level is below the entrance requirements to qualify for a colony. She, along with several other mothers, asked if there were also long waiting lines to get into colonies in the United States.

Several of the mothers agreed that thinking about the future brought sad feelings because there is no way that their child will ever be able to get a job. This was particularly a concern for mothers of young men. In the Japanese culture, the life of a man is centered around work, with little time for leisure or family life. Success on the job, whether as a homemaker or a businessman, is a national expectation in Japan. This concept prompted several mothers to express sadly that their child was of no value to the society. There was a universal belief expressed by each of the interviewees that a handicapped adult would not be accepted in the workplace and would, in fact, be a deterrent to productivity.

In Closing

There were many comments that were difficult for the Japanese parents to reveal in an interview situation. Yet, because of the uniqueness and high interest in the topic, and the tone established during the interviews, the parents were sincere and responded in apparent honesty. The interviews were conducted in two phases. First, the American visitors asked the parents to respond to specific questions on the California Follow-Up Data Form. Then, at the end of each interview, the Japanese parents had an opportunity to ask questions or add other comments. Openness and honesty were especially apparent here and the conversation frequently continued long after the formal interview was finished. Whether seated on tatami mats on the floor of a home or on a folding chair at a table in a special center, the human exchange was powerful.

A sense of universality of the experiences was created between the mothers in Japan and two parents from the United States. Regardless of ethnic or economic background, this common experience transcended many other cultural motifs and was an impressive learning experience for everyone involved.

The study was finished for the time being and there were many invitations to return. We left the lovely Japanese mothers and villages to return to our own families and to resume our work with families and children in America. These impressions were lasting ones and continue to influence expectations and interactions of the researchers. Unforgettable are the memories of the families with handicapped children visited during those initial interviews in Japan.

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VIDEO TRAINING PACKAGES FOR PARENT EDUCATION

by Roy McConkey

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INTRODUCTION

Over ninety percent of the world's children with disabilities live in developing countries. At best, only one in twenty will receive any form of assistance. A UNESCO (1988) survey of 51 countries, conducted in 1986/7, indicated that 34 of those countries had fewer than one percent of pupils with disabilities enrolled in special educational services, and in 10 countries, the figure stood at one in a thousand. Figures for the preschool years are equally depressing. Thorburn et al. (1992) estimate that only one in fifty families in Jamaica receive assistance.

In one sense, these figures are understandable. Developing countries struggle to provide educational opportunities for able-bodied children; initiatives for those with special needs are usually left to charitable endeavors. Given the present world economic climate, there is little prospect of rapid changes in this scenario. Other strategies must be explored.

In September 1990, the largest gathering of world leaders in history

assembled at the United Nations to attend the World Summit for Children. The resulting action plan noted that the necessary knowledge and techniques for reaching most of the goals already existed, and they proposed that "the great potential of the new information and communication capacity of the world should be marshalled to convey to all families the knowledge and skills required for dramatically improving the situation of children" (UNICEF, 1990, p. 26).

Since the 1960s, family-based intervention programmes of various forms and sizes have been devised in industrialised countries for children with special needs (Meisels and Shonkoff, 1990) and, more recently, similar schemes have been launched in various developing countries (Thorburn and Marfo, 1990). These have proved popular with families, although their effectiveness in boosting the child's developmental progress has been variable (Farren, 1990). Gallagher (1992) has concluded that the real advantage of such programmes "may in fact lie in a new spirit of optimism and encouragement within the family of the affected child" (p. 67). Helping families to help their child with special needs appears to be one of the most feasible strategies for achieving one form of widespread intervention in the developing world.

UNESCO INITIATIVE

It was against this background that the UNESCO parent education project was conceived. The project has three main aims:

Aim 1: To explore the use of indigenously-produced video programmes as a medium for educating families and local communities about childhood disabilities.

Video-based training packages had proved successful in developed countries (McConkey, 1988; Baker, 1989) and pilot work in Zimbabwe showed promise (McConkey and Templer, 1987). The advantages of video can be quickly summarised. It is visual; viewers can see new ideas and approaches in action. A variety of activities can be quickly displayed, and viewers can watch the sequences a number of times to reinforce their learning. Local scenes depict the viewer's reality, and emphasise that the messages are appropriate to the culture and that they are already being applied there. It is relatively easy to dub commentaries in local languages onto the video programmes, thereby making training accessible to everyone. Video cassettes can be easily taken or sent to any places which have video playback equipment. This is becoming more readily available throughout the world. Recorders and televisions can be battery-operated. The programmes can be easily repeated with different groups of parents or community workers.

Aim 2: To discover the feasibility of mobilising educational and technological resources within developing countries to produce parent training packages based around video programmes and associated print materials.

Dependency on overseas assistance is a common feature of disability services in developing countries. One unfortunate consequence has been the importation of models and methods which are ill-suited to local circumstances (Ager, 1990). A more favoured strategy is to empower local personnel to devise and implement indigenous services. The UNESCO project incorporated two approaches to doing this: 1) the identification of an agency or group of agencies within a developing country who could potentially undertake the task, and whose existing remits embraced this type of work; 2) the provision of a consultant to train, support, and guide local personnel in the skills and strategies required to complete the task, along with financial assistance to cover expenses. Two consultants were employed on the project; each spent two or three weeks working alongside the local partners.

Three developing countries (Malawi, Sri Lanka, and Uganda) were involved in the project, in part to validate the feasibility of the process, but also so that the resulting training packages could be shared with neighboring countries and thereby become a regional resource. Countries were selected following exploratory missions by UNESCO representatives.

Aim 3: To evaluate the reactions of parents and community to the training packages, and to identify common difficulties encountered by personnel presenting the training and suggestions for improvements.

The field testing of training materials is essential in order to make them more effective at meeting the needs of the consumers. Such formative evaluations are rarely undertaken in the production of educational materials. Because of resource constraints, written questionnaires, completed by the personnel presenting the packages, were used to collect this information. Unfortunately, there was no easy way of determining the use to which families put the information.

PROJECT OPERATIONS

UNESCO consultants, Dr. Roy McConkey (Scotland) and Sally Allan (Zimbabwe), provided initial training and support to local personnel identified by the partnering agencies. Both consultants had previous experience in producing video-based training packages in developing countries.

In Uganda, the National Commission of UNESCO convened a Task Force especially for the project, consisting of representatives of disability organisations, staff in hospital and community-based services, and teacher-trainers and personnel from the Directorate of Broadcasting in the Ministry of Information and from the Ministry of Education (Kayooya, 1992).

A similar Working Party was established under the auspices of the Malawi National Commission for UNESCO. This was drawn from various government departments, non-governmental agencies involved with disability, and from the University of Malawi (Kishindo, 1992).

In Sri Lanka, the partner agency was the Special Education Department of the National Institute of Education. The Institute also made its video and printing facilities available to the project (de Silva, 1992).

In each participating country, local personnel with training and experience of disability were involved in devising the content of the package. The video recordings were made on location in family homes in townships and rural villages. All the editing of the finished programmes was done in-country. Accompanying handbooks were drafted, illustrated, and printed locally. Hence, in each country, the educational and technological resources not only existed but were mobilised by the project to assist personnel working in services for children and families with disabilities.

The video programmes were produced within two/three weeks by a team of two people. The preparation of the handbooks required more time, but we estimate that each package required four weeks of full-time work by a team of three people, although this was spread over a period of up to nine months. Within that time, a training package had been produced in each country, using local resources. Each package consisted of a series of video programmes with accompanying print materials for use by tutors and/or participants.

THE TRAINING PACKAGES

The UNESCO project had chosen to focus on helping young children with disabilities, mainly under six years of age. Each partnering agency first identified the people in their countries who needed training and the topics they needed to be trained in.

Although there were some differences across the three countries, a common set of aims was drawn up for the training packages and target audiences were identified. However, the final content and style of the packages varied according to the priorities of the partnering agencies and the opportunities available within the country for the production of training materials (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. Details of Training Packages

A. ONE OF THE FAMILY

A training package for families with young children who have a disability. Produced by the National Institute of Education, Maharagama, Sri Lanka, 1991. Contents: Eight video programmes, totalling around 100 minutes.

1. Introduction: including ways of helping children learn; identifying disabilities
2. Socialisation
3. Mobility
4. Use of Hands
5. Self-Care Skills
6. Cognition
7. School Readiness
8. Household and Vocational Skills

B. LEARNING TOGETHER

A series of programmes for use in parent and community education. Produced by the Ugandan Task Force on Educating Communities about Disability, 1991. Contents: Six video programmes, totalling 60 minutes (more in preparation).

1. Learning Together - aimed at making communities more aware of the abilities of people with disabilities
2. Playing Together - helping the development of all children through common play activities
3. Planning Together - identifying disabilities and finding help
4. Walking Together
5. Talking Together
6. Thinking Together

C. GETTING TOGETHER

Programmes for the education and integration of the mentally handicapped in Malawi. Produced by the Working Group for Mental Handicap in Malawi, 1991. Contents: Four video programmes totalling nearly 50 minutes.

1. Get Ahead - play activities to prevent developmental delays
2. Get Going - developing mobility
3. Get Talking - developing communication and language
4. Get Ready - developing self-care skills

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Aims of the packages:

1.To change the attitudes of parents, family, and community to disabled children; to make them less protective; and to encourage them to let the children do more for themselves

2.To illustrate the signs which could indicate that the child has a disability (physical, sensorial, or mental)

3.To show how children learn the skills needed to make them more independent of their parents, so that they can be a help rather than a burden to the family

4.To help integrate the child into the family and the community, so that s/he can share fully in family life and in other children's activities in the neighborhood

5.To advise parents on how best to teach a child new skills through simple steps which are adjusted to the child's abilities, using common materials around the home and with the help of techniques such as modelling, prompting, and praise.

Target audience:

1.Mothers and fathers who have a young child (up to 10 years) with a developmental delay due to a mental and/or physical handicap

2.Older brothers and sisters, or relatives such as grandparents or aunts

3.Family workers in community-based rehabilitation programmes, or volunteer workers in centres and schools

4.Professionals in training (teachers, therapists, health workers, and nurses) whose work may bring them into contact with children who have a disability

5.Other parents in the community who could use selected parts of the packages on nurturing any child's development and on positive attitudes to children with disabilities.

Contents of the packages:

1.A series of video programmes recorded mainly in family homes in urban and rural settings. Additional material was obtained in schools and centres. The number of programmes varies from four to eight; each programme averages around 12 minutes in length. In Sri Lanka, the commentaries were available in Sinhala, Tamil, or English. In Uganda and Malawi, only English language commentaries were produced.

2.An accompanying handbook which gives charts for assessing a child's progress and ideas for further activities to help the child's development. The handbooks are around 60 pages in length, and are primarily designed for the use of local presenters, although parts of them could be copied and given to participants.

Supplementing video:

The packages also aim to optimise the effectiveness of video as a teaching medium with various supplements -

1.Local presenters: who can answer viewers' questions and help them apply the lessons locally. These were recruited from available service personnel, albeit with no previous experience of organising training courses

2.Learning from others: group activities are suggested to encourage participants to share their ideas and experiences

3.Written information: extracts from the handbook can be made into illustrated leaflets so that viewers can recall the main points of the video and be provided with further information for future reference

4.Activity learning: after each video, participants are requested to select new activities which they will try with their child.

FIELD TESTING OF THE PACKAGES

Each package has been field-tested with upwards of 1,000 people in the participating countries. These included parents whose children had a disability, service workers, students in training, and members of the public. A variety of venues were used including cinema halls, schools, and clinics. Attendances varied from 6 to 150 people at each showing. In all, 27 tutors presented the packages in a total of 57 locations across the three countries. In general, these local tutors were employed in services for children with disabilities, such as therapists, teachers, or teacher-trainers.

Three-quarters of local presenters would 'definitely recommend' the package to others. Just over half reported that it involved them in 'little extra work'; one-third, 'some extra work'; and three (10%) felt it required a 'great deal of extra work.' The latter ratings were associated with difficulties in obtaining video equipment. At nearly every showing, there were families who sought further help for their son or daughter with a disability. In nine out of ten showings with the general public, people came forward to offer their help.

The features viewers most liked about the videos were:

1.The range of activities which children with disabilities could do

2.The services available to help families and children

3.The love, patience, and enthusiasm of the families and workers shown on the videos

4.The socialisation of children with disabilities in the family and local communities

5.The change of attitude it provoked towards people with disabilities

Among comments made were:

"Parents realise that they should give their child more chance to move in society after seeing the film" (Malawi)

"Our ancient games are lost to society. Parents of normal children as well as impaired children need to get this understanding. If it is possible to make brief video out of this and telecast over public TV will be much more effective" (Sri Lanka)

"In Uganda, 65% of the population is illiterate and therefore can benefit greatly through audio-visual instructional method. Basing also on the enthusiasm showed, we strongly recommend the project to continue because it suits our socio-economic environment."

PROBLEMS AND CHANGES

Field-testers reported a range of problems, including poor sound quality

on some tapes, too much repetition of the same sequences, certain inappropriate activities, and the difficulties parents and the public had in coming to daytime showings. Among the main changes which tutors and viewers wanted were:

1.Commentaries in local languages (Uganda and Malawi)

2.Improved access to video equipment, transport, and dependable power sources

3.Similar programmes on other topics, such as toilet training and reading.

Comments on these themes included:

"Need to look into the acquisition of equipment which uses solar energy, as batteries are very expensive" (Uganda)

"More local people should get training in video production so that we can produce our own programmes" (Malawi)

"Parents would like to see more activities such as reading, writing and playing games" (Sri Lanka).

In Malawi, their package is now being used in nine community-based rehabilitation programmes, and in Sri Lanka, there are plans to use the package in the training of public health workers. In Uganda and Sri Lanka, the packages are being used in teacher-training programmes. In all countries, personnel are enthusiastic to produce further video programmes, and already the Ugandan Task Force and the National Institute in Sri Lanka have produced one further programme for their series (Allan, 1992).

FUTURE CHALLENGES

The project amply demonstrated the feasibility and effectiveness of video-based training in developing countries. Here we identify four implications for future efforts in this area.

INDIGENOUS MATERIALS

Local language commentaries and translations were frequently requested. This is a daunting prospect for countries like Uganda with its 22 languages and 38 dialects, but should be attainable relatively easily in most countries. In Malawi, the package is being translated into Chichewa. Hence, it is even more imperative that local personnel are empowered to produce their own training materials and to lessen their dependency on overseas expertise. Equally, easier access to video equipment, transport, and power sources will enable more widespread usage of the packages. The packages seem particularly easy to integrate into community-based rehabilitation projects as evidenced also by ongoing work in Guyana (O'Toole and Maison-Halls, 1992).

TRAINING FOR TRAINERS

Training packages depend on a local person being available to use them. Such people may not exist, or those who offer their services may prove unsuitable. We need s strategy for identifying and training local people who could take on this role. Re-examining the job descriptions of existing workers is one possibility. Hence, in Sri Lanka, part of the role of teachers in special units is to organise training for local teachers and parents.

The training of service staff must also include the skills needed to be a trainer. In-service courses on this topic are urgently needed. But who has the expertise and experience in the country to do this? Hence, manpower planning has to extend to training the *trainers* of trainers (McConkey and Bradley, 1991).

PRODUCTION OF TRAINING PACKAGES

The success of one training package should stimulate the demand for more. How can these needs be met? The production of multimedia packages could be undertaken by existing institutions, such as teacher training colleges; a model is presently being implemented in New Zealand. However, it will be difficult for colleges to do this within existing resources. Alternatively, the production of packages could be funded by releasing personnel for their day-to-day work and providing the monies needed to produce training materials (McConkey, 1993).

The cost of producing training packages is relatively small and the potential benefits are many, especially when the packages are used country-wide with a range of groups. Governmental monies or foreign aid might be directed towards new training initiatives.

INFORMATION FLOW

Most worrying of all is the failure to inform local people about already available training resources (McCormack and Kenefick, 1991). This problem occurs in every country, but is more acute in the developing world. Already a great deal of suitable training material has been prepared but is unused.

Establishing National Information and Resource Centres on Disability is a common proposal, yet often these exist in embryonic form in government departments, universities, colleges, or specialist services. A bigger challenge is to enable local people to use these services at minimum cost. Regular information bulletins and travelling exhibitions are low-cost solutions; while in developed countries, telephone help lines, computerised databases, and fax machines are helping information flow.

Modern technology, as the world leaders predicted, can provide new opportunities to help families in the developing world share in the insights and aspirations which are now commonplace in the industrialised world. But it is human ingenuity and vision which will fuel progress. Sadly, that breaks down more often than modern machinery.

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Further information about the packages can be obtained from:

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DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN GHANA

by Selete Kofi Avoke and Mawutor Kudzo Avoke

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Mawutor Kudzo Avoke, M.Ed., is a graduate of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria, and is currently a professor at the College of Special Education, Mampong-Akwapim, Ghana (soon to be the University College of Winneba).

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Ghana, formerly called the Gold Coast, lies along the Gulf of Guinea on the west coast of Africa. To the east lies Togo. On the west lies the Ivory Coast, and in the north lies Burkina Faso. The country is divided into ten regions. It has a total area of 239,000 square miles covering various geographical divisions. The extreme southwest is the wettest, but a large part of the south has enough rain to support a dense tropical forest. The country's drainage is dominated by the river Volta, which takes its source in Burkina Faso and drains itself into the Gulf of Guinea.

English is the official language; however, there are more than 500 dialects, with the major languages being Akan, Dagbani, Hausa, Ewe, and Ga. Ghana attained its independence from the British in March 1957, leading the way as the first black African country to leave the colonial tutelage of Britain. The population of Ghana is estimated to be about 15.4 million. Its major exports are cocoa, timber, gold, diamonds, manganese ore, and bauxite. Ghana has a tropical climate, characterised by constant sunshine and two major seasons. Politically, the present government is a military one; however, plans are underway for a constitutionally-elected government.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

Before the advent of Western education, education in Ghana was traditional, informal, and characterized by the extended family system. Children were taught by adults in same sex groups. Boys were taught male-oriented jobs: hunting, fishing, weaving, construction of homes, farming, etc. Girls, on the other hand, were taught housekeeping skills, child-rearing skills, cooking, making of clothes, smoking of fish, etc. For persons with disability, it was a period of total "darkness." They were completely excluded from the informal educational programs. They were either killed or exiled with their mothers to unknown destinations (Marfo, 1986). Colonialization then arrived, and with it came the British type of education and the reduction of the impact of traditional education. Though this was a new chapter in the educational history of Ghana, it unfortunately discouraged productivity and had no provisions for persons with disabilities.

In 1947, the Presbyterian church opened a school for the visually impaired in Begoro and Akronpong-Akwapim. This school started with about 100 students. In 1951, the first voluntary agency for the blind opened in Accra. It was a branch of the British Empire Society for the Visually Impaired, now called the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind. This society opened a vocational training center in Accra, where adults with visual impairments received training in baking and woodworking. Furthermore, sheltered workshops were built at Manganese and Bolgatanga. The activities of the Ghana Society for the Blind, and other benevolent individuals and organizations, encouraged public awareness and developed positive action toward the rehabilitation of people with disabilities. Following the initial success of schools for the visually impaired, a school was established at Christianburg, Accra, in 1957 by an African-American who was hearing impaired. This school was started with 53 students. In May 1958, another school for the visually impaired was opened by the Methodist church of Ghana. With an initial student population of 7, it now has a population of more than 200.

In 1958, the Ghana Cripple Aid Society was inaugurated. Hospital facilities were created at the 37 Military Hospital in Accra. This hospital was created to treat children with physical disabilities. A few years later, another hospital was built by a Spanish monastic order called the St. Joseph's Orthopaedic Hospital for the treatment of children with physical disabilities.

Education of the developmentally disabled was started in 1964 by a voluntary association known as the Society of Friends of the Mentally Retarded, now known as the National Society of Friends of the Mentally Retarded. This was a dramatic improvement because, earlier on, adults with developmental disabilities were grouped with the mentally ill. In 1977, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare opened a home for children with mild and moderate disabilities (Anson, 1977).

GOVERNMENTAL INVOLVEMENT

In 1959, attention was brought to the government of Ghana to the fate of children with disabilities in the country. Parliament was called into session to design a program for their education and habilitation. A committee was set up, headed by Sir John Wilson of the Commonwealth Society for the Blind. Among the recommendations were the following:

1. That, though it was difficult to expand special education beyond a certain limit, at least 10% of all children with disabilities should be in school by 1960
2. That there should be free education for all children with disabilities and more schools should be built
3. That there should be no schools for children with disabilities until there were trained teachers
4. That the nucleus staff to administer the center should be trained abroad.

The above recommendations were approved, and teachers were sent to England, Denmark, and the United States for training.

Following the above, the government took additional steps to ensure that persons with disabilities were better served and teachers were well-trained; the Ghana government assumed full responsibility for the education and training of all teachers and students in special education. The Ghana Education Service and the Ministry of Health were assigned the following roles and functions:

1. To be responsible for the education and training of all children with disabilities who were considered educable and trainable
2. To appoint an administrator of the various special schools and all other education staff except the medical staff
3. To cooperate with parents and form a link between institutions and homes of students
4. To be responsible for fundraising activities for the purpose of providing financial assistance to needy children attending school

5. To assist in educating the public on the problems and needs of persons with disabilities.

6. To be responsible for medical services, including dispensing of drugs and other medical adaptations.

7. To provide medical specialists to serve on the diagnostic and evaluation panel (Ministry of Education, 1974).

The Government of Ghana went a step further to sign an informal technical cooperation agreement with Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. Dr. James Crowner, then head of the Department of Special Education, developed a six-week cooperative teacher training program in Ghana.

CURRENT PROVISIONS IN SCHOOLS

Each special education school in the country is well-staffed by specialists who are mostly graduates from Akropong College. The teachers are hired and paid by the Department of Education. In addition, the government provides free education to all students.

Furthermore, symbolic subjects like local languages, English, mathematics, reading, and the sciences are taught at all levels. Manipulative studies like animal and crop husbandry, home economics, hairdressing, and tailoring are taught to enable the students to become economically independent.

The curriculum for the hearing impaired and the visually impaired is based on that of the regular education curriculum with some modifications. For those with developmental disabilities, they tend to have a less intensive academic curriculum. Emphasis is placed more on the vocational aspects of education.

The schools are not mainstreamed. Each teacher has an aide, called a "pupil teacher." Class sizes vary from school to school with the average being 20 per class. Some of the schools are boarding schools. Parents do not have to pay any tuition. The provisions of speech, occupational, and adaptive therapies are very limited. This is due to the fact that the specialists in those areas are very, very few. Even in developed countries like the United States, there is a great shortage of the abovementioned specialists. There are no in-school psychologists, and the first graduates in social work from the university will be graduating next year. Hopefully, they should be able to provide a lot of services to both parents and students.

Educating students with disabilities is a priority to the government. Special education can safely be juxtaposed with disciplines like medicine, engineering, and agriculture. These disciplines are the cornerstone of the government's development programs.

COLLEGE OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

The College of Special Education was opened in 1965 with the help of Ann Hewitt from the Commonwealth Society for the Deaf. Graduates from this college soon became teachers for the schools of the deaf throughout the country (9 schools by the end of 1978). In 1975, the government opened a department at the Presbyterian training college in Akropong-Akwapim for training teachers of the visually impaired.

Some African countries sent their students to train at the college (i.e., Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya, Swaziland, Gambia, Botswana, and Seychelles). Later on, the Department of the Mentally Disabled was established. Student enrollment improved dramatically:

YEAR	# OF STUDENTS
1986/87	66
1987/88	78
1988/89	104
1989/90	113
1990/91	131

In the 1991/92 academic year, the college was upgraded to form the nucleus of the new University College of Winneba (Kodonyo, 1992).

CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that special education has come a long way, with charitable organizations leading the way and the government eventually taking over. It must, however, be noted that the society and the government are collaborating to make life more meaningful for persons with disabilities. Because of the economic problems facing the country, the majority of persons with disabilities remains unserved. It must be noted that, to date, there are no facilities to identify persons with learning disabilities. In addition, there are certain parts of the country where there are no existing facilities for formal education and vocational education programs. In future, it is hoped that the Ministry of Education can come up with an approximate population of persons with disabilities so that they could be served better.

With the new University College at Winneba, research and quality training of teachers can take place. This will improve the pedagogical skills of teachers and will enable them to identify students with disabilities at an early stage. The government has made a concerted effort with the limited funds available to set up more programs for persons with disabilities. Furthermore, organizations like the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation and UNESCO have been very supportive through scholarships for further studies abroad and capital projects.

The idea of mainstreaming, as it exists in the United States, has not yet arrived in most developing countries. Hopefully Ghana will take the lead in this venture and serve as a model for other African countries. A lot still needs to be done. However, with dedicated administrators and sincere officials from the Ministry of Education, the education of all persons with disabilities will soon be a reality.

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SPECIAL EDUCATION IN JAPAN

by Shigeru Narita

Shigeru Narita is a Senior Researcher in the National Institute of Special Education, Japan. He is currently involved in research aimed at developing multimedia applications for special education. He is also participating in an international collaborative research project investigating teacher education in special education in Japan, Europe, and North America.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

As in most countries, special education in Japan is best understood in its historical and cultural context. Abiding cultural values strongly affect much of contemporary Japanese special education, and the nation's long historical and cultural background is not always widely known in Western Europe and North America. However, not all of Japanese special education is homegrown. At the end of World War II, Japanese education was devastated with the result that, after the war, when the government was placed under the control of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces and nationwide efforts began to reconstruct the country, a wave of foreign ideas, mainly American, was introduced and adopted through the educational mission committee of the Allied Forces. In addition, Japan is unusual in its long record of interest and initiative in learning from other countries; in recent years, it has become increasingly active in consciously seeking ideas from abroad to help solve its education problems. In the context of what has amounted to ongoing and radical reform of the Japanese educational system, special education also has been extensively changed.

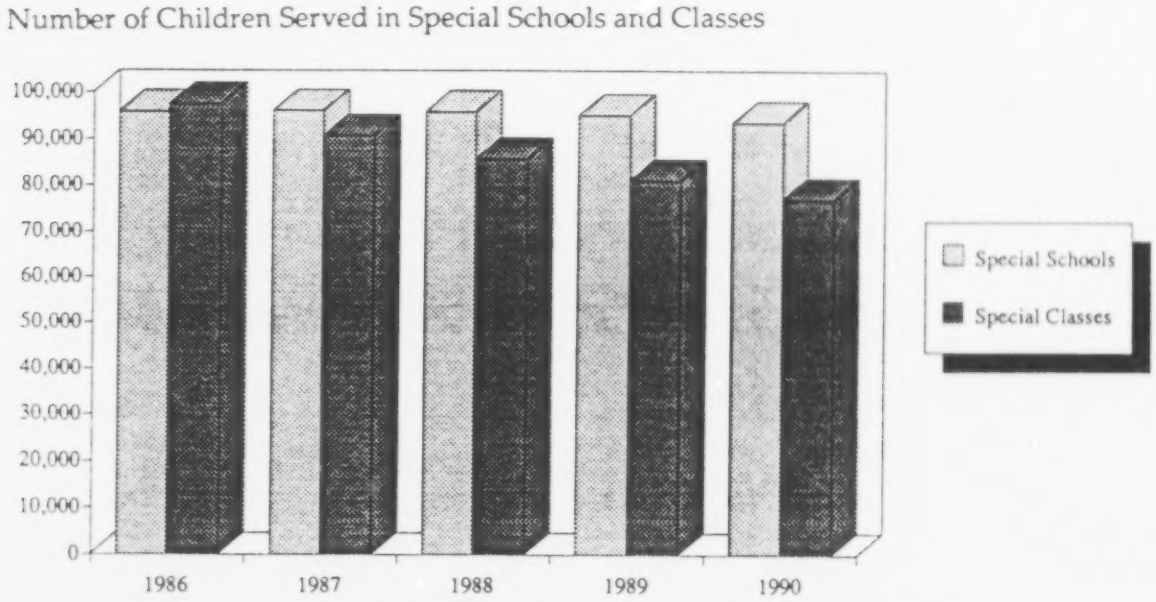
SPECIAL EDUCATION PROVISION

Educational services for children with various categories of handicaps started on a small scale and developed slowly. A landmark in the history of special educational provision was the Special Measures Law for the General Provision of Public Schools for the Handicapped (Law No. 152) which came into effect in 1956. This law increased governmental subsidies to promote the establishment of schools for the handicapped. In November 1973, a Government Order was issued to determine the enforcement date of that part of the School Education Law which had been passed in 1947 and which provided for establishing schools for the handicapped. Under the provision of the Order, handicapped children who had been deprived of compulsory education services were given opportunities to attend school and guaranteed a free public education. Finally, a compulsory system of 9 years of education for the handicapped was firmly established in 1979.

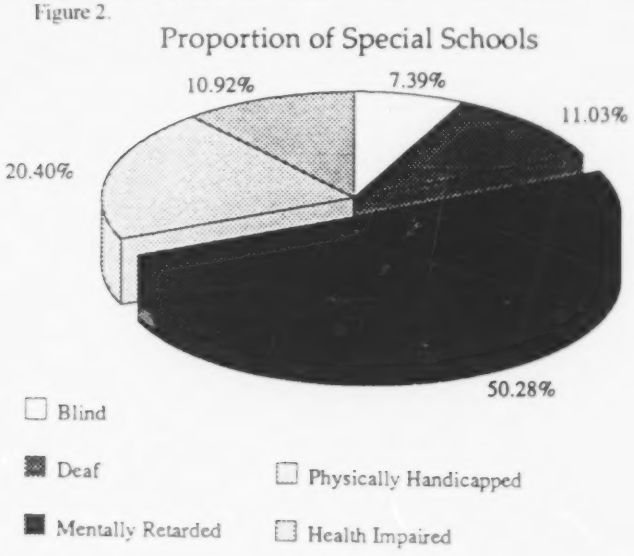
Placement in a special school or class is dependent on the degree of handicap. The degrees of handicap which determine the eligibility of children for placement in a special school are defined in the *Order for Enforcement of the School Education Law* (Article 22-2), while the detailed stipulations of the Article are given in the *Notification of Educational Placement of Pupils and Students Who Need Special Educational Treatment* (Notification of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, No. 309, 6th of October 1976). The Notification also denotes the degrees of handicaps which determine the eligibility of children for special classes. It is not appropriate in this article to describe these guidelines in any detail but, in general, education for severely handicapped children is provided in special classes or ordinary classes with special consideration and arrangements.

Figure 1 summarises the educational placements of handicapped children provided under this Order and Notification over the period from 1986-90. In the 1990 school year, the total enrollment of handicapped and non-handicapped children in elementary and lower secondary schools -- part of the 9-year compulsory schooling entitlement -- was approximately 14.8 million. Of this total, 93,497 children and 77,162 young people were served in special schools and special classes in the regular schools, which represents just over 1 percent of the total student population. In comparison to the number of children in special educational placements in the United States, for example, this is clearly very low.

(Figure 1)



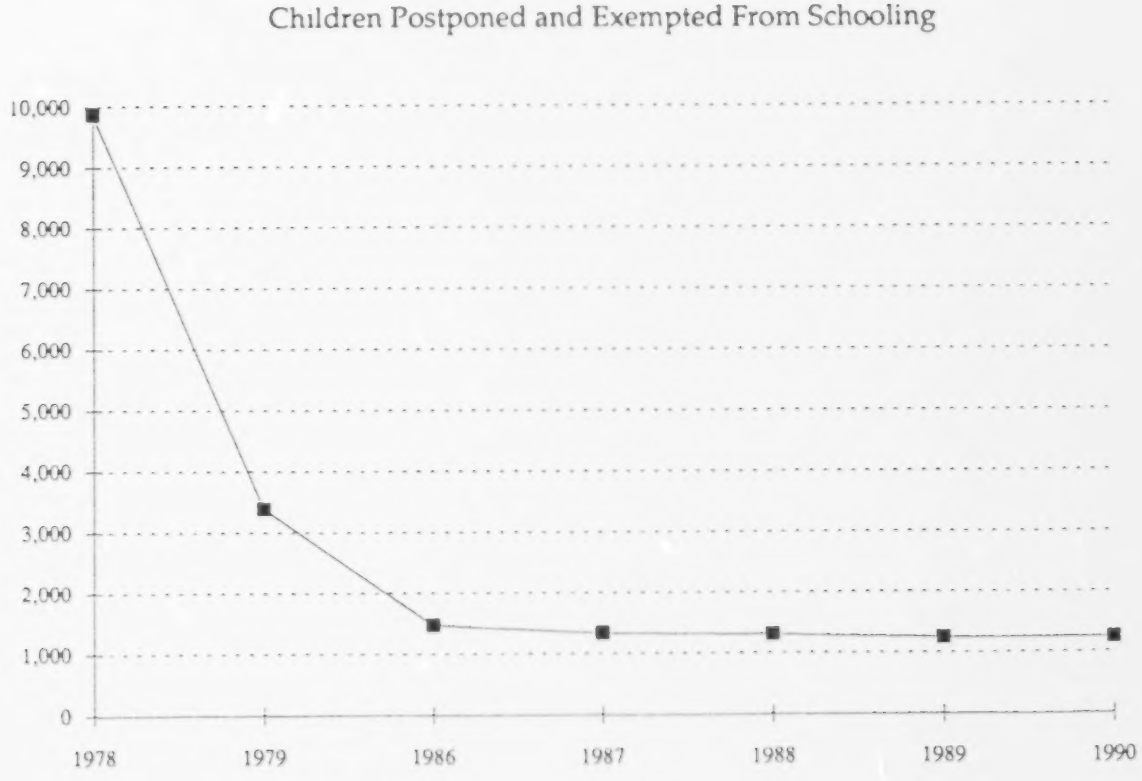
It is important, however, to recognise that the basis for the provision of special education is that of segregation, and that special educational services are primarily provided in special schools and special classes in regular elementary and lower secondary schools. There are three types of special schools for the blind, schools for the deaf, and schools for the mentally retarded, physically handicapped, and health impaired. The proportion of pupils in these different schools is summarised in Figure 2.



This provision is based on the belief that there are a number of children with special educational needs (SEN) who, for a variety of reasons, may do better at first in a non-integrated environment or a home-based program. However, it is also recognised that others may benefit from more flexible approaches, and many spend part of the week in special programs and in limited inclusion programs with non-SEN peers. 'Transactional' programs are becoming common whereby SEN children and non-SEN children come together for field trips, open house events, club activities, etc. Such programs are intended to give SEN children opportunities to learn and play with children who will someday be their friends, co-workers, and neighbors. Both groups are seen as benefiting from being together on a regular basis when their attitudes and perceptions of themselves and others are most pliable. However, beyond this mainstreaming is an issue that may be said to be in limbo.

It is also important to note that, over the five-year period, the number of students in special classes has decreased significantly and, while it is not apparent in Figure 1, this decrease has taken place across all handicapping conditions. In contrast, the number in special schools has decreased, but only slightly. The introduction of compulsory education for the handicapped in 1979 also resulted in a drastic decrease in the number of children who were postponed or exempted from schooling. As can be seen in Figure 3, the number of children plunged from 9,872 in 1978 to 3,384 in 1979.

(Figure 3)



CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

Japanese education aims to provide all children with balanced basic instruction in the 3 R's, science, and art throughout the nine years of compulsory schooling. However, the basic goals for both regular and special education encompass a greater range of competencies including social, aesthetic, and interpersonal skills. First of all, skill in human relations is considered essential to social life; schools and teachers consequently place a great emphasis on developing children's interpersonal skills and promoting a sense of social cohesion and collective responsibility through a wealth of non-academic and academic learning activities. Second, Japanese generally view academic knowledge as merely one part of the more comprehensive goal of developing 'ningen' or the 'whole person'; it is assumed that the broad educational goals set for children cannot be accomplished if there is a separation of heart and body. As a result, the teachers' routine responsibilities are also related to the aesthetic, physical, moral, and social development of their students.

PARENTS' MOTIVATION IN EDUCATION AND PARENT-FINANCED INSTITUTIONS

To a great extent, Japanese people are eager to learn. An ethos of pursuing new understanding and relevant knowledge leads to a strong commitment to personal education and self-improvement which extends beyond the official school system to a variety of institutions, programs, and opportunities. Of special significance for school-age children are the JUKU, the unofficial, parent-financed schools which supplement the official system. They seem to meet important educational needs for many families. JUKU is the Japanese term for a large and diverse group of private, profit-making, tutorial, enrichment or remedial, preparatory, and 'cram' (or coaching) schools found throughout the country. Most JUKU operate after school hours and on weekends. JUKU parallel the official school system in a somewhat interdependent relationship.

Hundreds of thousands of students, including many with special educational needs, study at JUKU in order to catch up or brush up. Although it is observed that the JUKU are not a healthy phenomenon from a governmental and societal viewpoint, they seem to have been meeting important educational needs for many students and their families. JUKU meet: 1) the need for supplementary instruction to enable many elementary and secondary students to keep pace with a demanding school curricula, and 2) the need for remedial instruction to help those who have fallen behind.

In passing, it is perhaps important to note that the relatively small proportion of pupils in special schools and classes may be related to the presence of remedial instruction at JUKU. It is possible that many students, who in other countries are receiving special educational support, may in Japan be catered to in JUKU. Whether this is in fact the case is impossible to determine, because the number of pupils who attend JUKU and the nature of the instruction they receive is not collected or counted in any official statistics or reports.

Other factors which may explain the small percentage of pupils in special schools and classes are the general well-being of infants and toddlers and the low mortality rate of newborn babies. The mortality rate of newborns is 6.2 in 1000, the lowest rate in any developed country. Also relevant may be the fact that the Eugenic Protection Act of 1948 and the Eugenic Protection Amendments Act of 1952 permitted abortion and eugenic operations under specific provisions. One provision of the Amendment states that abortion is legal in such cases where a pregnant woman would encounter financial difficulties in rearing the child. Though statistics are rather outdated, the 1979 statistics show that over one million pregnancies were terminated (Fujii, Mizuno, Moriyama, & Sawazaki, 1987). The majority of women chose to consult gynaecologists and undergo an abortion rather than bear impaired infants, when their fetuses were diagnosed as having 'something wrong' or when they were at risk. In this context, we can assume that the number of newborns with serious birth defects would be smaller than that in other industrialized countries.

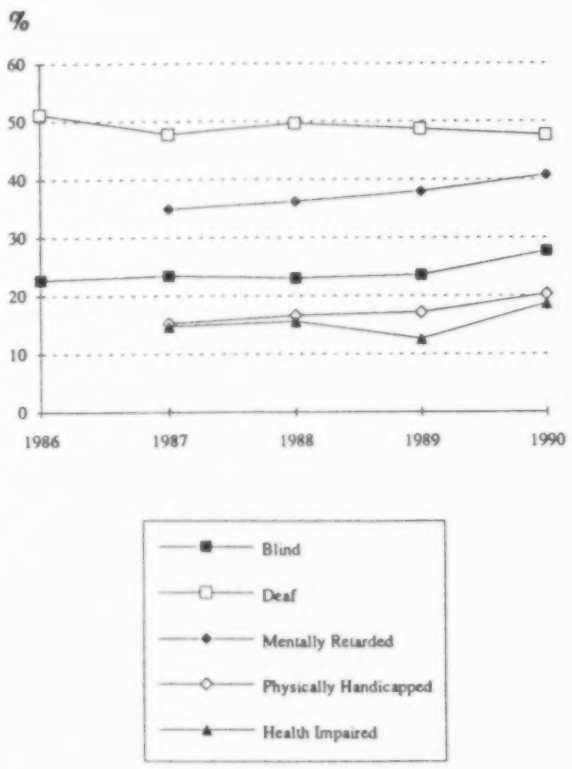
TRANSITION AND EMPLOYMENT

Upper secondary education beyond 9 years is not mandatory; however, all prefectural governments have separate special schools for the upper secondary handicapped population, and approximately 70% of the handicapped students who graduate from the 9-year compulsory schools for the handicapped proceed to upper secondary schooling. In the case of graduates from special classes in regular lower secondary schools, about 50% go to upper secondary schools.

Vocational education for these students is viewed as an expansion of work/study in the regular curricula of special schools. The work/study program is fairly narrow in its goals; is generally provided in upper secondary departments of special schools; is largely focused on serving students with mild and moderate handicaps; and is typically implemented in programs reserved for students with disabilities. Vocational education programs are broader than this, and aim to improve a whole range of social adaptation and work skills so students can lead independent lives after schooling. Largely as a result of these programs, the employment rate of upper secondary students with special educational needs has increased in recent years. Figure 4 illustrates this trend in relation to five categories of handicap between 1986 and 1990. It can be seen that the graduates of schools for the deaf are comparatively well employed, though their employment rate is unusual in that it has decreased over this period.

(Figure 4)

Students Employed After School



TEACHER EDUCATION

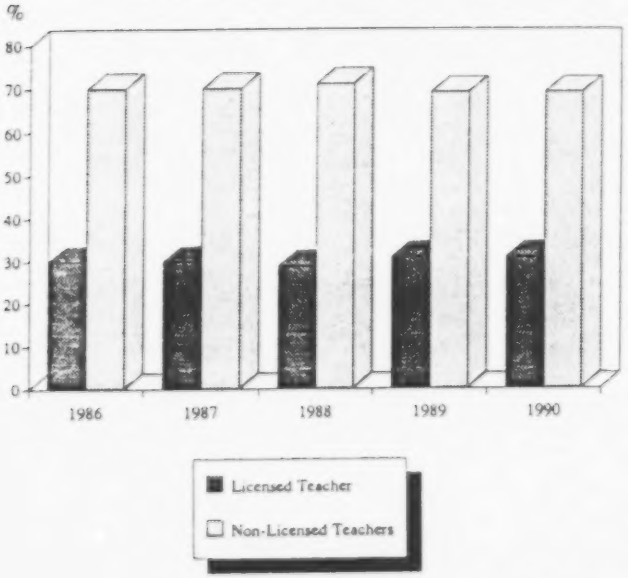
Education is assigned supreme value by most Japanese, who deem it a top priority. Teachers are consequently seen as an essential element in the success of individual growth and the eventual prosperity of the society. Japanese society entrusts major responsibilities to teachers and expects much from them. Japanese culture views the school as a moral community and a basic training ground for becoming a good citizen. Teachers have broad responsibilities for providing moral education and character development, and for instilling fundamental Japanese values and attitudes. In this context, teachers are expected to infuse cultural values throughout all phases of schooling, and are seen as being responsible for students' lives both inside and outside the school buildings. In return, society confers high social status and economic rewards, but also subjects teachers to constant public scrutiny.

A prospective teacher meets the formal academic requirements for entry to the teaching profession through successful completion of a prescribed teacher training course of study in a post-secondary institution. Most public school teachers are prefectural employees, and applicants for teaching posts must take prefectural appointment examinations which help ensure that all applicants compete on equal terms for any teaching vacancies. A license awarded by any prefecture is valid in all prefectures. Once applicants gain entry to the teaching profession, they are assured of lifetime employment. They are promoted on the basis of seniority, as are all public sector employees. The idea of performance-based merit pay is not a viable consideration in Japan, mostly because of this system. As a result, all prefectures and municipal boards of education are careful in recruiting new teachers.

Continuing professional education, once teachers are appointed, reflects Japan's cultural commitment to self-improvement as well as a response to perceived weaknesses in formal teacher preparation; prefectural and local boards of education are not wholly satisfied with university teacher preparation. The Ministry of Education requires first-year teachers to receive a minimum of 20 days of in-service training during that year. Under the direction of the Ministry of Education and prefectural and municipal boards of education, in-service training is offered for public school teachers at all levels and at various career stages but, as can be seen in Figure 5, only approximately one-third of the teachers teaching special classes in regular elementary and lower secondary schools are licensed as special education teachers.

(Figure 5)

Licensed Special Education Teachers



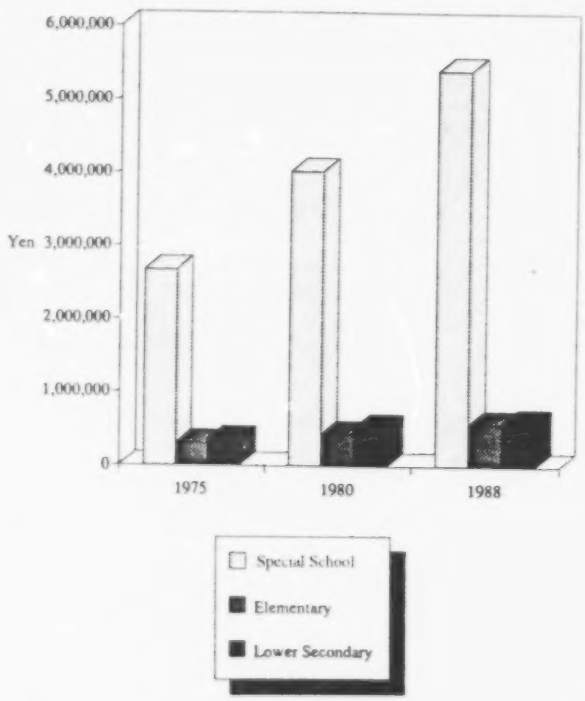
The base salary of a Japanese teacher depends heavily on seniority. Salary is not substantially affected by degree or certificate level, and no differential exists between the salary of a teacher who has a master's degree and one who has only a bachelor's degree. Special education teachers, however, do have a special incentive allowance of 8% of their salary. Central, prefectural, and municipal governments share the financial arrangements for this measure.

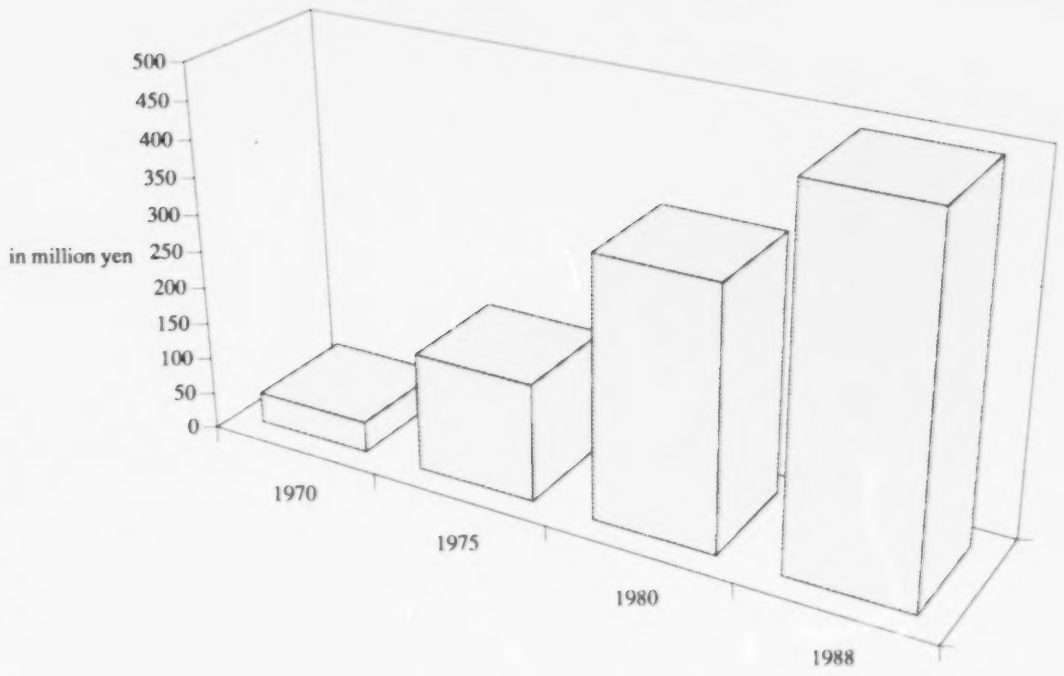
FINANCING SPECIAL EDUCATION

The annual expenditure for special schools in 1988 was about 493 billion yen provided through the national government, prefectures, and municipalities. Expenditure has increased approximately 150 times in the 36 years since the Special Measures Law for Construction of Public Schools for the Handicapped was enacted. The cost per student in special schools, in comparison to that of students in ordinary schools, is summarised in Figure 5 for the period from 1975 to 1988. The cost per student in special schools in 1988 was 5.4 million yen, while the cost per student in regular elementary schools and lower secondary schools was about 590,000 yen and 600,000 yen, respectively. That is, the per student cost in special schools is approximately nine times the cost of a student in regular education. It can further be seen in Figure 7 that the costs for special schools in 1988 were approximately 493 billion yen funded through the national government, prefectures, and municipalities. Compared to the expenditure for special schools in 1970, which was approximately 42 million yen, special education school expenditure has increased 12 times in 18 years.

(Figures 6 and 7) Special School

Cost Per Child





Because the number of special schools is limited, many children are forced to live in school dormitories or to travel long distances to attend school. The financial burdens on parents become greater than on parents of children in regular education; in order to reduce such burdens, subsidies are offered to parents. These subsidies cover part of the cost of school lunches, board, room, field trips, and instructional supplies, depending on the parents' income level.

ISSUES FOR THE FUTURE

In recent years, Japan has made considerable progress in developing national and prefectural policies and action plans, financial arrangements, facilities, and equipment. A current issue in promoting comprehensive special education is the shift in focus in special education policy from 'access to services' to 'quality of services.' With 13 years of implementation of a compulsory system of special education, early intervention, remedial services for slow learners, job training services, accessibility to adult life skill training, finding qualified teachers for special schools, and obtaining parental involvement in various educational dimensions are natural outcomes. The societal demands for qualified labour forces in the marketplace will result in increased responsibilities of special education personnel in all aspects in providing better services to meet the needs of children and parents.

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SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

by Darlington Kalabula

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This paper provides a brief report on the existing provision for children with special educational needs in Zambia. It gives a bird's-eye view on matters of educational policy and legislation, administration and organization, current provision, finances, problems, and future plans for this type of education.

POLICY AND LEGISLATION

Zambia has had an articulated National Policy on special needs education since 1977. The fifteen-year-old Educational Reform Document had elaborate recommendations on special needs education and clearly specified the need for integration, early childhood special needs education, adapted regular curricula to meet identified and specified individual needs, staff development, integrated administration, inter-ministerial cooperation, and adequate financing, for special needs education to be more meaningful and beneficial.

The Educational Reform Document also categorized the type of handicaps prevalent then; however, this well-stated policy has not been adequately implemented. The implementation has not only been gradual, but also has been difficult. This could safely be attributed to non-specification of special needs education in the 1966 Education Act, which, as a consequence of a new regime coming into power, is being reviewed to suit the educational enterprise of the new era. Special educational needs were deemed to be implied in the general legislation for all pupils. The policy on special needs education lacked reinforcement, as the legislation was drawn eleven years before the Policy statement on special needs education was made. As a result of this non-representation of the requirements of specified individual needs of disabled children, hardships were encountered in implementing the recommendations of the 1977 Educational Reform Document, as these were not supported by appropriate legislation. Consequently, administrators of education in Zambia could not see the need to back up special needs education. The political wind of change in Zambia has also in the "hour" achieved tremendous applause by quickly embarking on a review of the inhibiting 1966 Educational Act. It is hoped that special needs education will feature prominently in the quest to reform education.

ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANISATION

Special education in Zambia has been centrally administered from 1971, when education for children with special needs became a direct responsibility of the Ministry of Education. It is hoped to continue like this for some foreseeable future, until education for all as a concept has been grasped by educational administrators. The earlier thinking by administrators was that there were very few competent professional and administrative personnel to qualitatively support and run special needs education. This implied that the inspectors, based at the Ministry Headquarters, could not effectively manage special needs education, both professionally and administratively. This erroneous thinking, unfortunately, still lingers in the minds of some educational administrators. On a pleasant note, however, this pattern seems to be gradually changing through appointments of some special needs trained manpower to professional and administrative posts in the mainstream educational enterprise at school, district, and provincial levels. Apart from the appointments referred to above, a few seminars and conferences have been convened for district and provincial administrators of education by National Inspectors, based at the Ministry of Education Headquarters. Similar seminars have been planned for heads of schools and district administrators who did not participate in the 1990-91 seminars.

At present, three Senior Inspectors of Schools, based at the Ministry of Education, coordinate activities of special education. Their functions include: planning, resources estimates, curricula adaptations, staff development, supply and training of teachers, production and transport of materials, and recommendation and implementation of policy. These inspectors are assisted by an education officer, who is also based at the Ministry of Education. At provincial and district levels, special needs education activities are coordinated by education officers and inspectors of schools in the mainstream. In four out of fifty-seven districts, special needs education activities are supported by inspectors, ordinarily appointed, but with special needs education training and experience. These four inspectors are also extensively utilized as provincial advisors for special needs education in their respective areas. All educational administrative issues in special needs education are handled by provincial and district education officers, respectively.

At school level, special needs schools are administered by special needs trained manpower. In special needs education units, which are part of regular schools, the heads of these schools administer these units just like any other areas of operation, but with the support of trained special needs resource room teachers. In this case, special needs education is considered an integral part of education for all pupils, regardless of whether they have special educational needs or not.

EXISTING PROVISION

There are two main modalities of provision of special needs education in Zambia. Residential special schools are still the dominant provision, while integrated provision via resource room treatment, especially at secondary school level, is rapidly increasing. There is also one privately organised special school where children with various special educational needs are being assisted under one roof, in the name of "integration." From a scanty 15 integrated settings in 1977, there are now more than 110 around the country, servicing various specified special needs children in primary schools, secondary schools, teacher training colleges, and the university.

Pre-school education is being provided at one discrete centre for children with severe communication needs. It offers early childhood education for children and their families who are counselled to help them come to terms with their emotions, and guides them in parenting children with communication difficulties. Even though the importance of early childhood special needs education was recognised in the 1977 Education Reform Document, it has not been implemented; however, a new pilot project has been conducted on the feasibility of it being implemented.

Pupils with various special educational needs are offered a broader access to the mainstream curricula although these curricula are, unfortunately, examination-oriented. In addition to these national curricula are modified supplementary curricula prepared by teachers and Special Needs Curriculum Development Officers, based at the National Curriculum Development Centre in Lusaka. This idea of having special needs curriculum developers emanated from the painful experience when teaching was wholly based on examinable subjects, rather than on identified educational needs of pupils. Consequently, most special needs pupils have left school with inadequate knowledge and living skills to enable them to lead an independent vocational and social life.

IDENTIFICATION, ASSESSMENT, AND ADMISSION

There are no adequate means of identifying infants with disabilities in Zambia, and most children with conspicuous special needs are identified by members of their families; some are identified in primary school and pre-schools. After being identified lately, these children are clinically assessed by medical or paramedical professionals, thereby clinging to old medical categorisations of disabled children. The child's special needs are never assessed by a team of various professionals that includes parents. It follows, therefore, that admission into a special school or unit is not based on the specified needs of the child and not always to the satisfaction of the child's parents. The crudely-identified and medically-assessed children are matched to the existing provision, instead of providing them with education contingent upon their assessed needs. As a result of these admission procedures, these children are taught as an indigenous group from the syllabus content to enable them to pass the examination.

From 1990-91, the Ministry of Education, in conjunction with the Ministry of Health, conducted a pilot research project on the viability of initiating early intervention services for infants with hearing impairments. The findings of this research have given Zambia deeper insight into the urgent need for establishing early intervention programmes for disabled infants.

TEACHERS AND TEACHER TRAINING

Teacher training is provided through ten Primary Certificate teachers' colleges, two Diploma teachers' colleges, and a degree course organised by the University of Zambia School of Education. From this year, all colleges in Zambia and the university will offer modules on special needs education. These will discuss disabling conditions, needs of disabled pupils, and principles and methods of educating children and youngsters with special needs. Teachers with special needs training have already been posted to these initial teachers' training colleges to facilitate special needs education.

There is only one college that trains teachers for special needs education. The college is essentially an in-service training centre. Experienced serving teachers, who need further training and want to advance the education of children and youngsters with special needs, are admitted to this college. In the past, only primary teachers were trained at this college, but now even secondary school trained teachers are admitted. In the recent past, the college had admitted students from neighboring countries such as Botswana, Tanzania, Lesotho, and from as far away as Ethiopia, Somalia, Rwanda,and Uganda. The college is geared to be affiliated to the University of Zambia, and will, as a result, offer diploma programmes from 1993.

NEW INITIATIVES IN MAINSTREAM EDUCATION

Zambia, as referred to above, is reviewing its 1966 Education Act to give the schools clear policy statements to enable them to offer quality and equitable education for all pupils. This is expected to direct the headteachers to respond to pupils' individual needs within the framework of the regular curriculum.

After attending various seminars organised by the teachers of special needs children and inspectors in special education, mainstream teachers are participating in educating integrated pupils with special educational needs. Through Child-to-Child programmes, able pupils are working hand-in-hand with children with special needs.

FINANCES

Funds for financing special needs education in Zambia comes from the Central Government. In the past, donor agencies, such as the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA), the Norwegian Development Agency (NORAD), and the Finnish International Development Authority (FINNIDA), have participated in the funding of special needs education. The funds from Central Government go to recurrent expenditures, while capital projects have been assisted by the agencies listed above. Children with special needs in residential special schools greatly benefit from recurrent funds, while mainstreamed children scratch from the trappings left by mainstream pupils, whose budgets are prepared by the schools in which they are integrated.

PROBLEMS

Among other things, the following seem to limit operation in the provision and administration of services to children with special needs:

- absence of specific legislation
- lack of early intervention services
- centrally-drawn examination-oriented curricula which do not meet the needs of pupils with special needs
- inadequate special needs education resources
- inappropriate resource rooms and units
- the gap between national level inspectors and the classroom teachers
- lack of communication channels to inform the parents and other significant people in the life of a child with special educational needs in his/her locality
- lack of understanding of specific needs of individual children by administrators at different levels of service delivery
- negative attitudes of ordinary teachers toward the service and children with special needs
- insufficient funding.

FUTURE PLANS

In the quest of improving educational provision to children with special needs, it is important to:

- review the 1966 Education Act to include a new chapter on special needs education
- establish a Department of Special Education, not to operate as parallel administrative machinery, but to harmonise service delivery within the complex educational enterprise
- establish early intervention services
- run seminars to update administrators and mainstream inspectors on special needs education
- carry out pilot research on special educational needs, gadgets, and production
- adapt curricula based on identified and specified needs
- renovate resource rooms and units in primary and secondary schools to make them enabling learning environments
- encourage builders of new schools to take special needs pupils in consideration when laying out the environment
- initiate a pilot project on itinerant teacher programmes for children with visual impairments.

CONCLUSION

While it is universally acceptable that children with special educational needs must be integrated academically and socially in order for them to benefit fully from possible human chances available to all, it can be argued that, although universal declarations of intent and commitment always seem high-sounding and idealistic, very little is achieved at practical levels. This is apparent especially when regional and local cases are taken into consideration. For example, there are many militating factors in Zambia, such as:

- long distances covered by pupils to reach any nearby school
- high teacher-pupil ratios (it is not uncommon to find a 1:70 teacher-pupil ratio)
- vandalised schools where one finds only 10 desks to be shared among the 70 or so pupils per class
- examination-oriented curricula where teachers are teaching to achieve certain pass percentages from their classes to meet the government's and parents' expectations.

What benefits could one expect from such a situation? Couldn't one end up making the child with special needs more handicapped?

Even if the current political will and commitment to support special needs education is positive, the factors enumerated above need to be pragmatically addressed before Zambia can seriously consider the well-meaning, high-sounding universal trends.

On balance, it can be concluded that the ideal system for special needs education in Zambia, considering all the "dwarfing" factors at play at this crucial moment, is neither full integration nor complete segregation (Kalabula, 1991). Rather, there should be an integrated and coordinated special needs education system structured to permit placement of children with special educational needs in both special and ordinary schools, dependent upon the needs of the individual child and the capacity of the school to meet them.

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INCLUSION AND INTEGRATION IN EUROPE: A HUMAN RIGHTS ISSUE

by Christine O'Hanlon

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The setting up of the European Economic Community (EEC) has led to cooperation and sharing on all fronts: economic, social, environmental, and educational areas of development. However, each of the member countries, on its accession, has brought to the community its own existing economic, social, environmental, and educational systems which are unique, yet also have similarities. For example, education is compulsory in all European countries, yet the starting age varies from 3-7 years, and the total years of schooling varies from 9-12 years. Differences and similarities of this nature become particularly clear in educational policies regarding children with special needs.

The harmonisation of educational systems in Europe is not an overt aim of the European Community (EC); the Maastrict Treaty of 1991 offers each member country autonomy in its own educational system. Each country has an educational system which has been built upon tradition, history, culture, and national aims and aspirations. There are problems with the simple communication of data related to practices, means of collecting and collating data about the practices, and the wide and often subtle divergences in the meanings attached to practices. For these reasons, it is difficult to make direct comparisons across systems with respect to the education of students with special educational needs.

At the present time, the English-speaking and Scandinavian countries have replaced the traditional categories of handicap and disability with the comprehensive term, "special educational needs." Although English and French are the two dominant working languages within the EC administration, some words and concepts in English are not easily translated into French, with the result that the word "handicap" is often used in place of special educational needs. It is usual in EC working groups to use the International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps, which is used to distinguish between a person's actual "disability" (which may be measured in national contexts and categorised with the person's need), and the "handicap" (which is the resulting social effect of the disability and varies from country to country and within cultures). To ensure that the meanings of different terms are not misunderstood or misinterpreted in the European context, the Council of Europe defined the terms as follows:

An *impairment* is any loss or abnormality of psychological, physiological, or anatomical structure or function.

A *disability* is any restriction or impediment, resulting from an impairment, or inability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being.

A *handicap* is a disadvantage for a given individual, resulting from an impairment or a disability, that limits or prevents the fulfillment of a role that is normal (depending on age, sex, and social and cultural factors) for that individual (EASE, 1990).

INTEGRATION IN EUROPE

The Integration Movement in Europe began in the 1950s and possibly originated in Scandinavia. It is now the focus of enormous efforts in policy-making and practice in the European Community. It is, however, difficult to gauge the exact percentage of pupils defined as being integrated. For example, Italy and Denmark are generally cited as the two major exponents for the practice of integration in the EC, yet recent research has shown that only 1.7% of pupils are identified as having special educational needs in Italy in comparison to 13.3% in Denmark (Pijl & Meijer, 1991). The full significance of this is not realised until it is also noted that 1.5% of pupils in Italy and 2.4% of pupils in Denmark receive other than full curricular integration; that is, these pupils are not fully included in mainstream classrooms. It is only when we examine the number or percentage of pupils *excluded* from mainstream classrooms and curricula that we fully understand the term "segregation," which is the antithesis of integration. When seen in this light, the UK and Italy, with only 1.5% of pupils not fully integrated in mainstream classrooms, may be seen as the most successful countries in the EC to fully include pupils in the ordinary or mainstream school curricula. In terms of non-curricular integration, in the research cited above, Germany and the Netherlands were rated high with 4.2% and 3.9% of pupils, respectively, in separate segregated schools, but both Germany and the Netherlands have traditionally built up well-resourced and organised separate special school systems which are highly regarded by parents and, therefore, are more resistant to transformation.

As noted above, the most radical integration at present is taking place in Denmark and Italy, closely followed by the UK, France, Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands. In Spain, the movement towards integration has been fast and dramatic; there has been real enthusiasm and a will to find creative means of achieving the inclusion of pupils into mainstream schools since 1985. The integration of pupils with special needs into the mainstream is not as advanced in Portugal, Greece, or Luxembourg. Ireland has no direct policy on integration, yet it is happening in practice.

In *Italy*, the ideal is 100% integration, and the key question is **how** to integrate, not **why** to integrate. Since 1977, legislation has required than an "integrated" class should not number more than 20 pupils, should not contain any more than two special needs pupils, and should have a support teacher attached to it.

In *Denmark*, the national aim is the elimination of segregated

education by the end of the century. The Danish Folkeschool has always had favourable staff-pupil ratios, and recently has invested in advanced technical aids in support of pupils with special needs in mainstream classes.

In *France*, initiatives in the early '80s were aimed to desegregate children with special educational needs and also to reduce failure among those experiencing difficulties at school. However, there is a gradual approach to integration in France. Integration is seen as one of a number of means towards the full development of the child, not as an end in itself.

The move towards integration in *Germany* is cautious, because of its highly-developed special school system. But, in Germany, there are particular projects in particular places which are good examples of integrative practice, e.g., radical integration in primary schools in Hamburg, and integration of visually impaired pupils in Schleswig-Holstein.

The special school system in the *Netherlands* is also very elaborate, and movement towards integration is slow. The 1985 Special Education Interim Act encouraged schools to adopt a developmental approach to integration, but parents of pupils with special educational needs in the Netherlands are still very resistant to integration. In spite of this, there are many integration projects in the Netherlands, e.g., in Rotterdam and six districts known as the Zon Project.

In *Spain*, legislation in 1982 and a Royal Decree in 1985 have moved the Spanish radically into integrative school policies. Designated "integrated schools" have a maximum of 25 children per class and a provision of two support teachers in the school. There is a defined eight-year development plan, and it is planned that one integrated school should be created for every 100,000-150,000 inhabitants per year. This will lead to half of all primary schools becoming integrated schools within the next eight years. There is an innovative project in Barcelona, known as the Crei-Sants Project (Castillo, 1989), for pupils with special educational needs, and some interesting integration projects in Andalucia (Lopez, 1990).

For both political and economic reasons, integration has come to be seen as the major solution for the education of pupils with special needs in *Portugal*. The main group of children who are being integrated in Portugal at present are those with visual impairment; this has proceeded well since the late sixties. Other forms of integration are progressing, too, but this varies in relation to the nature and degree of impairment and the availability of local resources.

In *Greece*, education in the field of special needs has been strongly influenced by affiliation to the EC. Since 1984, special classes in ordinary schools have increased from 25 to about 28, and about 1% of the total school population in Greece now receives special educational treatment. Programmes have been established in the more heavily populated areas of Greece for inter-school activities and some partial integration, but the rural nature of the population poses problems of equity in practice and in innovating ideas in education, such as "integration."

HUMAN RIGHTS

The movement towards integration in Europe has been heavily influenced by the Community's belief in human rights. The Treaty of Paris (1951) and the Treaties of Rome (1957), which together form the Community's constitution, do not explicitly refer to human rights, but the 1986 Single European Act refers to the European Convention on Human Rights and the European Social Charter drawn up by the Council of Europe. It treats the rights which they enshrine (freedom, equality, and social justice) as cornerstones for the construction of Europe, and emphasizes the need to assert them in international relations. The European Community also seeks to promote human rights through the Council of Europe, in which all the democratic states of Western Europe are involved, and through the United Nations General Assembly, which frequently deals with human rights questions about social and cultural issues. The Community has made clear its opposition to racism and xenophobia through specific active measures aimed at legislation, more information, and improved training for officials, educators, etc.

Human rights issues are political issues, as is the integration of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream schools. To deny a disabled person the ability to live in the community, albeit the educational community, is an abuse of human rights. The integration, re-integration, or non-segregation of all pupils on the grounds of ability or disability is an essential part of the vision of the new Europe. The model of the new European society involves obligations towards others in the Community; the common heritage reflects a shared concern for upholding human rights and fundamental freedoms, which increasingly demands the active practice of desegregation in education.

ENABLING LEGISLATION

How has this vision of the construction of the new Europe influenced educational practice and policy in the member states? How have the fruits of educational history, educational necessity, intention, and will been influential in the education of pupils with special educational needs?

The answers to these questions are complex. There was enabling legislation which fostered integration in the six founding countries in the 1960s and 1970s, particularly in the Netherlands, Belgium, and the Federal Republic of Germany. The movement did not begin in the United Kingdom or Ireland until the 1980s, and was closely followed by other recent Community members, i.e., Spain, Portugal, and Greece. However, since then, there has been much practical policy-making which has fostered the development of integration, supported by legislation in the UK and Spain.

Belgium was one of the countries to give an early lead in legislation; the Special Education Act (1970) provided the legislative framework for the development of special education policy. The main points of the 1970 Belgian legislation were:

1. Each handicap is defined on an educational basis.
2. Special education is a right, not an obligation.
3. Parents have the final say in the child's referral procedure.
4. Special education is limited to necessity, i.e., only to children who really need it and only for as long as necessary.
5. Preventive action is taken in ordinary education, with more remedial services in schools and differentiation opportunities in school curricula.
6. Social integration is the special aim pursued in all forms of special education (Dens, 1988).

It was not until eleven years later that the Education Act (1981) in England and Wales brought the same conceptual framework, with the introduction of the phrase "special educational needs" to replace the concept of "handicap." If we examine the 1981 UK legislation, there are distinct similarities to the Belgian:

1. Each child is redefined as having special educational needs if s/he has a learning difficulty which calls for special education provision.
2. Special education is provided only if education in an ordinary school is incompatible with the child's needs.
3. Children are to be educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents (with qualifications).
4. Authorities must review a child's "statement" every 12 months (possibly for re-appraisal of special school placement).
5. Children with special educational needs are to be educated in ordinary schools (with qualifications) as far as possible.

It was also in the 1980s that Spain introduced new laws. There was no real enabling legislation until 1982, when the *Social Integration Act* was passed, which encouraged the integration of the retarded child on the general principles of normalisation, integration, and individualisation in education. In 1985, the *Real Decree of Ordination of Special Education* gave particular emphasis to the improvement of ordinary schools, to make the integration of a child with disabilities or learning difficulties easier, and to achieve more coordination between ordinary and special

schools (Palomares et al, 1987).

THE ROLE OF THE SPECIAL SCHOOL

The example of Belgium clarifies the changing role of the special school in Europe. As noted above, integration has been proceeding in Belgian school practices since 1970 and was, in fact, strengthened by the *Special and Integrated Education Act* (1986), a modification of the 1970 act. There two important points within this act:

1. A pupil is only required to attend a special school insofar as his/her educational needs and potential become apparent during a multi-disciplinary examination.

2. A legal foundation was laid to provide extra guidance by special schools and personnel for pupils with disabilities or learning difficulties attending ordinary schools.

The legislation ensured that every child who attended a special school would be entitled also to integrated education. Each child had a right of access to education in an ordinary school, which would now have specialised professional help for pupils who were integrated. A multi-disciplinary team undertook the relevant assessments and advice; parents' views were also taken into account. The proposal was formulated in the "Integration Plan" for each pupil. The two schools concerned, i.e., the special school and the ordinary school, were given special assistance to cover operational costs. The student's Integration Plan was subject to yearly assessments to allow the school's and the pupil's changing circumstances to be considered.

Through this new focus, the gap that had previously existed between special and ordinary schools was narrowed, and special schools were given a much more positive "integrative" role in a child's educational process. Since the passing of this legislation in Belgium, the number of integrated pupils overall has risen from 8% to 20%, in primary level, from 8% to 25%, and in secondary level, from 7% to 14%. The most notable increase has been in the integration of pupils with visual impairments, which has increased from 28% to 46% of all pupils with special educational needs (Dens, 1988).

The example from Belgium shows that there are still pupils attending special schools, because their needs are severe and because parents and professional agree that the placement is necessary. Yet, the 1986 legislation makes it possible for all children receiving special education to mainstream through an "integration plan." This thinking is now being promoted in all countries in the Community, and the need is stressed for:

1. legislation to enable all pupils to be educated together, and to follow the same curriculum;

2. legislation to ensure partial or part-time desegregation for all pupils in special education;

3. practices which enable pupils in ordinary and special education to learn together as persons within the same community, family, group, race, or society.

CONCLUSION

The human rights policies adopted by the European Parliament, the Council, the representatives of member states, and European Commission still have a long way to go to ensure that positive attitudes and practices are developed in all European countries with respect to children with special educational needs. The integration of pupils with special educational needs into mainstream education is a political issue and a human rights issue. Discriminatory attitudes and prejudices still exist about race, class, gender, and disability. As long as stereotyping and prejudice exist towards people on the individual, institutional, or societal levels, we must raise questions about attitudes to groups, such as children with special educational needs, which are evidenced in the legislation and practices within member countries.

On 12 June 1989, the Council (Labour and Social Affairs) requested the member states to continue to implement policies of positive action to promote the occupational integration of disabled people. The Council also requested the Commission to stimulate cooperation among the member states to promote social and economic integration and an independent way of life for disabled people (Bulletin of the European Communities, 1989). The Commission was also asked to give its support, under the European Social Fund, to national measures to improve the integration of disabled persons, and to forward to the Council proposals on employment which would ensure better coordination and greater consistency among the measures introduced by the member states. As education precedes employment, integration in education precedes the integration of people with disabilities in employment. As the Commission's promotion of social integration implies integration in schools, similar requests related to full integration in educational contexts are just a matter of time.

However, each country within the European Community must establish its own legislation ensuring every child's access to the same curriculum processes. Demands for clearer legal imperatives in all member countries are essential. At present, some countries will be better prepared than others for the transition from segregated to integrated practices in schooling.

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TOWARDS THE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

by Lesley Barcham and Graham Upton

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The CEC's decision in 1990 to establish a Division on International Education, with the aim of serving "as a catalyst for international sharing of promising practices, research and technologies" and promoting the "dissemination of pertinent information about the education and care of persons with special needs," has been well received by many members of the Council, both in the USA and in other countries. It is also timely in relation to continued improvements in global communication and interaction, and necessary in terms of the limited attempts to understand special education as a global phenomenon.

For some time, writers on special education issues have noted the lack of a comparative dimension in special education literature and research. As long ago as 1977, Sutton noted in conclusion to a paper on the use of acupuncture treatment for children with a hearing impairment in China that, "this paper has been no more than a preliminary exercise in cross cultural or transcultural defectology as a contribution towards this as yet neglected field of comparative education" (p. 8).

Similarly, Putnam (1979) acknowledged that different patterns of educational provision for children with disabilities exist, but that "systematic studies of these variations are rare" (p. 83). More recently, Carrier (1984), in a comparative sociological study of special education provision in the USA and England, stated that "while sociological studies of special education are rare, comparative and historical studies are even rarer" (p. 35). He went on to argue for the importance of analysing the different social, cultural, and political forces which shape special education policy. In the same book, Barton and Tomlinson (1984) noted the need for:

> comparative sociological perspectives on special education to make clear whether and how structures, processes and developments are different or similar in different countries. They should make clear whether different political and economic arrangements and ideological beliefs affect the care and education of the "special" and they should raise particular cross-cultural and cross-national problems (p. 6).

WHY COMPARE?

Few authors have addressed the question of why we should compare the education systems and aspects of educational practice in different societies. Halls (1990), however, argues that the comparative study of education gives people a broader perspective on education, and helps people to focus on the forces and causes that produce differences in educational systems. Comparative studies can give global descriptions and classifications, as well as analyse the relation and interaction among different factors within education and between education and society. Thomas (1990) suggests that comparative education helps to highlight international trends, assess the development and effectiveness of past and present policies, give a consideration of alternative approaches to similar issues, and point out the different social, cultural, and political processes which are at work in different societies.

From these perspectives, comparative studies in special education could provide us with an increased appreciation of the diversity of national responses to educating children with disabilities and learning difficulties. They could highlight and examine current trends and issues, seek to explain similarities and differences in provision, as well as draw attention to current and past changes and developments. Comparative studies could prevent special education from becoming too parochial or nationalistic, and encourage international understanding and dialogue in the field. Comparisons could help to extend our understanding and sharpen our insights into our own educational system and those of others.

HOW CAN WE COMPARE?

Because the need for comparative studies has not often been considered in special education, consideration has not been given to what methods might be appropriate for use in research and writing. Special education is a complex area of study which has been variously dominated by psychological, medical, and pedagogic perspectives. There has been a diversification in the research approaches used in the last ten to fifteen years with the increase of research of an interpretist nature (Barton and Tomlinson, 1981), but there is still a dominance of descriptive, evaluative, and assessment research (Wedell, 1985). These approaches are not necessarily appropriate for use in comparative studies.

There are, fortunately, established methodological frameworks which have been used within the field of comparative education which could provide a basis for the development of comparative studies in special education. However, as Theisen and Adams (1990) argue, comparative education is a "complex and at times controversial field of study." It has no single distinctive concepts or methodologies; rather, its distinctiveness lies in its cross-cultural dimension. They see contemporary comparative education research as being in a period of methodological, theoretical, and paradigmatic diversity, generally reflecting trends in most of the social sciences. Theisen and Adams have, however, developed a classification of comparative research which could usefully be used as a framework with which to consider possible future areas for research in comparative special education. Their four categories are as follows:

1. Analytical research, which looks for explanations for relationships among various factors in education. It seeks to examine components in an education system and the relationships among them.

2. Descriptive research often gives a detailed explanation of a subject, phenomenon, or condition. It does not seek to give an analysis or evaluation. Descriptive research can include broad surveys as well as in-depth case studies.

3. Evaluative research is used to test social science hypotheses or principles of professional practice. It has utility in planning or policy formation and for assessing innovative programmes.

4. Exploratory research generates hypotheses and examines the utility of new paradigms, as well as define new issues for research.

Theisen and Adams note the increase in analytical, evaluative, and exploratory research at the expense of descriptive work.

CURRENT SITUATION

In order to provide a clearer picture of the current state of comparative special education research, a content analysis was carried out of a sample

of journals, books, and other sources of information within both special education and comparative education for the five-year period from 1986-1990 (Barcham, 1992). This involved looking at the coverage given to special education in comparative education literature and research and the weight given to comparative issues in special education literature.

In the field of comparative education, six journals (*Comparative Education; Comparative Education Review; Compare; International Journal of Educational Development; International Review of Education; Prospects*), covering comparative education and educational development, were reviewed in order to identify the number of papers which had been published on special education. The coverage was surprisingly low: only six papers on special education were found, representing 0.75% of the total content of the journals. Further examination of these papers revealed that all were written by authors from developed countries. Three papers involved general descriptions of particular aspects of special education in one country, while the other three were concerned with a particular special education issue (e.g., integration, parent-teacher collaboration) as it affected students in one country, although some small reference was made to other countries. None of these papers could be considered to be truly comparative in nature, although they did bring certain special education issues to an international readership.

Books on comparative education and educational development similarly had a very low coverage of special education issues. Some (e.g., Halls, 1990 and Fagerlind & Saha, 1989) made no mention of special education. Others (Coombs, 1985; Thomas, 1990; Graham-Brown, 1991) made a passing reference to special education noting, for example, special educational development as a "problem of staggering dimensions in the developing world" (Coombs, 1985) and as one of those areas "which is beginning to be taken seriously in a number of countries and is vital to any policy which advocates education for all" (Graham-Brown, 1991). It is possible that these books represent a gradual recognition by writers on comparative education and educational development that special education is an area worthy of consideration, but the sample studied is too small to be sure that this is a definite trend.

The current situation in special educational literature regarding comparative studies is slightly more positive than that relating to special educational issues in comparative literature. However, it was immediately apparent that major national special education journals paid virtually no attention to special education issues in other countries. *Exceptional Children* and *The British Journal of Special Education*, for example, both contained no papers at all with a substantial international orientation during the entire period under review. Specialist journals fared little better. In the field of education for deaf students, for example, the *American Annals of the Deaf, Volta Review*, and the *Journal of the British Association of Teachers of the Deaf* contained only six international or comparative papers between them for the same period. The best international coverage which was identified was in the journal *Disability, Handicap and Society*. This journal is different from the others in that it covers issues other than education and is much more international even in the composition of its editorial board.

In the six journals mentioned, it was estimated that approximately 2% of all the papers had an international or comparative dimension for the period reviewed. However, from the total of twenty papers which were identified, sixteen covered issues relating to one country only, three involved two countries, and one gave an international overview. Furthermore, the countries featured were predominantly from the industrialised, developed world: Australia, Austria, Canada, Finland, Ireland, and the USA. The other countries covered were middle-income countries: Brazil, Cyprus, South Africa, Jamaica, and the Philippines. Papers from more than one country included Australia and the UK in two papers, and USA and Burundi in the other one.

From this summary, it can be seen that the international coverage in general special education journals (with one exception) is generally low, and that those papers which are published with an international or comparative nature are mostly from writers from developed countries.

With books on special education, the situation is similar. It is clear that the vast majority of special education books are written for the home market, written and published with a national readership in mind. Such books covered the entire spectrum of special educational publications: psychology books on assessment, pedagogic books on teaching methods and curricula, medical books on the causes and incidence of certain impairments and diseases, as well as books on legislation and provision, teacher education, post secondary education, and collaboration with parents. These contain few references to educational practice outside their country of origin even though some are distributed and sold in other countries. There are, however, some books which are written for publication overseas because they represent a new and apparently successful method or technique or they fill a gap in the national market for material on a certain issue. Books such as Kiyo Kitahara's (1984) three volumes on *Daily Life Therapy: A Method of Educating Autistic Children* and the Maria Hari and Karoly Akos book (1988) on *Conductive Education* (books from Japan and Hungary, respectively) are good examples of this genre. Such books bring overseas philosophies and concepts to their readers, but the intention is by no means to foster the comparative study of special education. There are also books published which include collections of edited papers on special education issues from a variety of countries because they have originated in international conferences. While this type of publication usually contains interesting material about educational practices in different countries, it nonetheless lacks a comparative edge and, in many cases, fails to acknowledge the different socio-economic and political conditions of the educational systems about which the authors are writing.

This is not to see such information on overseas practices, policies, and provision as of little value; however, its effectiveness can be limited by not seeing the information in its wider context.

Of the material investigated in the review, that which contained the most comparative data on special education involved recently-introduced specialist journals and a small number of books on international issues in special education. Two journals, both produced since 1986, address the needs of an international readership in special education. The *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, as its name implies, is primarily European in readership, although slightly less than a third of its papers come from outside Europe. The second is the *International Journal of Special Education*, which is edited and published in Canada, but is extremely diverse in the composition of its editorial board and the nationality of its contributors. The *International Journal of Special Education* lives up to its name by covering a large number of countries and including a considerable number of papers on developing countries, although the contributors of articles are still weighed to those from developed counties. The largest number of contributors for the period reviewed were from USA and Canada, followed by UK, Israel, and South Africa.

The nature of the research presented in these two journals also still favors "single country studies" (e.g., "Special Education in Malaysia") or papers concerning a particular aspect of special education in one country (e.g., "Making a Statement: Assessment of Special Educational Needs in Great Britain"). Both journals contained only a small number of papers of a truly cross-cultural or comparative nature, or those seeking to present an international overview of particular issues. Both journals show a preponderance of papers covering research of a descriptive nature, looking also at intervention and provision, with a small percentage of papers of a theoretical nature.

In relation to books on international issues in special education, there have also been the beginnings of publishing interest. Several books have come to the authors' attention, all produced since 1985. Interestingly, two are specifically for a readership in developing countries: Baine (1988) and Thorburn and Marfo (1990) both address issues of importance to special educators in Third World situations. Baine's book is psychological in nature, looking at teaching methods and curricula. Thorburn and Marfo's book in contrast is aimed at a wider professional readership

than just teachers and seeks to look at issues of prevention, identification, intervention, and programme evaluation. Two books by Australian and North American authors compare special education in developed countries: Fulcher (1989) has written about policies in special education in Australia, USA, England, and Scandinavia; Becker and Greenberg (1985) have compared special education in the USA and the former East Germany.

Overall, books are still not a good source of information on special education in other countries, even though there are signs that this situation could be set to change in the next ten years. Currently, journals, conference proceedings, and data from large international agencies (e.g., UNESCO) and smaller and more specialised agencies, such as the World Federation of the Deaf, are the major sources of information. The literature is still mainly descriptive in nature, but analytical and evaluative research is present; theoretical works could begin to flourish.

FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

The ideas and suggestions contained in this paper have been presented in an attempt to stimulate discussion on the need for, and possible value of, the development of a comparative approach within the field of special education. It is the present authors' belief that there is a place for a more detailed discussion of comparative education issues as they apply to this field. A consideration of the aims, paradigms, methodologies, and research approaches of comparative education could be valuable in identifying whether there are any concepts and tools which could be used in furthering the wish to understand special education in other countries. As has been demonstrated in the above content analysis of recently published literature, present interest in the international dimension of special education rarely moves beyond the descriptive. A properly developed comparative perspective could assist policy makers, educators, and researchers in appreciating the social, cultural, and economic constraints of their own situation, together with an understanding of the possibility of learning from the research and situation of workers overseas.

King, in a recent book (1991) on *Aid and Education in the Developing World*, pointed out an asymmetry in educational research, which is currently dominated by writers and researchers from the Western developed world. The review of literature referred to earlier noted that much of the material available in the richer, industrialised countries about special education in developing countries is still produced by writers from those developed countries, or from international aid agencies based in the North. If a truly international understanding is to be achieved, it would seem essential to also look for ways to redress this imbalance by engaging in more collaborative research, actively encouraging papers and books from Third World writers and researchers, and assisting in getting books and journals already written in developing countries to a wider readership through international publishing.

There is much to be done in terms of establishing and extending special education provision in a large number of countries. There is cause for hope that much may be achieved as a result of international declarations on education for all, and the rights of the child, as well as individual governments recognising the need for education for children with disabilities and difficulty in learning. But there is also much that an academic community can do in providing information, evaluating programmes, advising aid agencies exploring new ideas for policies and provisions, as well as briefing government, ministries, etc., about the educational needs of children and young people with disabilities and difficulties in learning. This paper has attempted to provide an overview of the current situation in comparative special education. Hopefully, it may stimulate discussion on the ways an interest in international issues in special education may be developed into an area of real academic debate and research.

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